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THE STATUS OF SPEECH DEFECTIVES IN MILITARY SERVICE

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THIS article was written at the request of the Editor of the JOURNAL. It was read and approved before publication by appropriate military authorities. The information presented was obtained from two sources that should be clearly differentiated by the reader: solicited statements of military officials, and statements by civilian speech pathologists, including the writer, based on their personal observation and experience.

There are stutterers in the United States Army. There appear to be a very few stutterers in the other branches of the armed forces. It is probable, however, that rather more than half of the stutterers who have been examined by military examiners have been rejected, usually, however, for reasons other than the condition of their speech. Speech disorders arising from or associated with mental deficiency, or organic or psychopathic disorders may with considerable certainty be regarded as disqualifying for military service. The situation is less clear concerning regional and foreign dialects and articulatory defects of a functional nature; presumably the general intelligibility of speech is the main point of consideration in such cases.

The situation with regard to Selective Service can best be summarized by quoting from a letter received from the War Department, Office of the Surgeon General, dated December 3, 1942:

> It is regretted that recent rates concerning rejection of speech defectives at Army Induction Boards are not available. Army Induction Board experience from November 1940 through February 1941 shows that 0.40 per 1,000 examined were rejected by Induction Boards for speech defects. Total neurological causes of rejection during this period amounted to 5.17 per 1,000. Thus speech defectives formed a little more than seven per cent of the neurological rejections and 0.16 per cent of all causes of rejection.[1]

These rejections were made under Mobilization Regulations 1-9, dated October 1941. At that time Regulations provided for classification in I-B of all those showing "Stuttering and stammering of a degree disqualifying for general military service but which has not prevented registrants from successfully following a useful vocation in civil life." They provided for allocation to Class 4 (rejection) all those who exhibited "Stammering to such a degree that the registrant is unable to express himself clearly or to repeat commands." As of March 15, 1942, the Regulations were changed in the following manner: acceptable for general service are "Men whose speech can readily be understood, even though there is a moderate degree of stuttering or stammering, if otherwise physically, intellectually and emotionally fit"; acceptable for limited service are those showing "Stuttering and stammering of a degree disqualifying for general military service but which has not prevented the men from successfully following a useful vocation in civil life"; the designation for nonacceptable speech defectives remains unchanged and is the same as quoted above for Class 4.

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[1] A memorandum of December 16 from the Office of the Surgeon General contains the following statements: "The figure 0.40 per 1,000 . . . reflects *Induction Board* experience only and has nothing to do with *Local Board* experience. . . . It should also be noted that the rate of 0.40 per 1,000 means that only that proportion of men examined were rejected by reason of speech defect only. Rejections by cause are listed in the quoted data by *one* principal reason for rejection. Undoubtedly an unknown number of speech defectives were rejected but are included in the categories of other rejective defects."

As to the disposition of speech defectives after being admitted to the Army, little information is available. Mild defectives might not be as apt to exhibit disorders of personality such as probably would be found in individuals having major speech defects. The discharge from the Army of such individuals would probably be attributed to some mental state, such as constitutional psychopathic state, rather than to stuttering or stammering.

It is the impression of the clerks who are coding Induction Board data that more speech defectives are being rejected than accepted at the present time.

In a communication of December 11, 1942, from the National Headquarters of the Selective Service System the following additional information was obtained: "Local boards are authorized to disqualify a registrant for any military service because of . . . deformities of the mouth, throat, and nose which interfere with mastication of ordinary food, with speech, or with breathing, or that create an unsightly condition." In the same letter the further statement was made that "statistics concerning speech defectives are not available at the present time."

An inquiry concerning the situation with regard to the Navy brought the following statement, as of November 27, 1942, from the Bureau of Naval Personnel, Navy Department, Office of Naval Officer Procurement, Chicago, Illinois:

The medical department lists stuttering or stammering as a nervous disqualification for duty in the Naval Reserve.

A later communication from the same office, under date of December 10, extended the scope of the above statement to designate stuttering or stammering as "a cause for rejection for appointment in the Naval Service."

Important information concerning a limited aspect of the problem in relation to the Navy was furnished by Raymond Carhart of Northwestern University, Chairman of the Committee on Rehabilitation of the American Speech Correction Association, in a letter of December 3, 1942:

> There has been one development at Northwestern which will interest you. Recently, the Naval Aviation Cadet Selection Board in the Chicago area put on a concerted drive for recruits. All candidates who passed their other examinations but who possessed defective speech were referred to our Speech Clinic. If, after examination of a case, we felt that the speech defect was of a type that could be overcome by concerted work within 90 days, the candidate was inducted and was given a 90 day deferment for the purpose of correcting the speech defect. If prognosis was poor the candidate was rejected. Assistance and advice has been given 15 to 20 Naval Aviation candidates who reached us through this channel. The results have been gratifying. Quite a number of these boys have already completed speech therapy. Incidentally, most of these cases involved sound substitutions or minor voice problems. It was made clear to the Naval Aviation Cadet Selection Board that most stutterers could not be expected to complete therapy in the 90 days the board set up as the maximum time allowable.

Carhart also reported briefly the findings of his committee from a survey of the problem in connection with the R.O.T.C. The following statements are based on his letter of December 3, 1942, and on a report made by him to the American Speech Correction Association in Chicago, December 28:

Information concerning participation of speech defectives in R.O.T.C. was obtained from 12 university speech clinics, of which 11 reported clinic cases enrolled in R.O.T.C. and one reported no such cases. The 11 clinics reporting cases gave a total of 105 stutterers and 57 speech defectives of other types participating in the R.O.T.C. program. [It is Carhart's opinion that the larger number of stutterers is a function of the nature of the inquiry.] The main conclusions based on data concerning these cases are the following:

1. The results of the study, while incomplete, probably furnish a fairly good sampling of the situation as it has existed throughout the country.
2. Practices and standards have varied from school to school, and at some schools exemptions from officers' training have been made because of speech defects.
3. The number of stutterers reported exceeded slightly the combined total for voice and articulation problems. This is probably due either to the emphasis of the study or to the fact that stutterers are proportionately more likely to receive aid in college and university speech clinics.
4. Of the speech defectives reported 229 did not go beyond the Basic Course.
5. Only 5 stutterers received commissions, as contrasted with 13 nonstutterers. This may indicate a selective factor operation against stutterers.
6. Data on R.O.T.C. grades earned by speech defectives were too varied to allow concise summary. However, while in many instances defects of speech seemed to be a handicap to success in officers' training, students with such defects have taken the Advanced Course and have been commissioned.
7. It proved impossible within the procedure of the present study to determine how successfully speech defectives who have had officers' training have later met the demands of military service.

For the past two years or so the American Speech Correction Association, through its National Defense Committee, has been endeavoring to clarify the question as to the status of stutterers and other speech defectives in relation to military regulations, and to place the facilities of the Association and its members at the disposal of the government as a contribution to the war effort. At the Association meeting in Detroit in December, 1941, the National Defense Committee was reorganized into a Committee on Emergency Defense and a Committee on Civilian Defense, with Herbert Koepp-Baker as National Defense Coordinator. The Committee on Emergency Defense was later renamed the Committee on Rehabilitation. It is made up of Raymond Carhart, Chairman, Harlan Bloomer, Bryng Bryngelson, Paul Moore, Charles R. Strother, Max D. Steer (formerly Chairman of the National Defense Committee and now on active duty in the U. S. Navy) and Harold Westlake. The Committee on Civilian Defense is comprised of Robert W. West, Chairman, James F. Bender Harry J. Heltman, Wendell Johnson, George Kopp, John C. Snidecor, and Ira S. Wile.

On December 4, 1942, the National Defense Coordinator of the A.S.C.A., Herbert Koepp-Baker, informed the writer that he had no very exact information concerning the status of stutterers in the military forces. Such information as he had been able to obtain suggested that the policies of local draft boards have differed considerably with respect to induction. In the various Army induction centers, also, it appears that somewhat differing interpretations may be placed on the official regulations (which were stated in the above letter from the Surgeon General). This is undoubtedly to be expected, since among stutterers there are striking individual differences of many kinds—not only with regard to speech—and since among speech pathologists, psychiatrists, and physicians there are considerable differences of opinion concerning the theoretical interpretation of stuttering. At any rate, the matter may be succinctly summarized by the statement that apparently some examining boards reject stutterers who would prove acceptable to other examining boards.

As was stated earlier in this article, there are stutterers in the United States Army. This statement is based on the Surgeon General's statements given above, on the writer's personal knowledge, and on information received from other speech pathologists concerning stutterers with whom they are personally acquainted. How many stutterers there are in the Army can hardly be determined at the present time, but from the statements that follow it is to be inferred that the number is rather considerable.

It will be recalled that in the Surgeon General's statement, as quoted above, it was said that from November, 1940, through February, 1941, 0.40 per thousand men examined were rejected by induction boards for speech defects. Surveys familiar to all speech pathologists have indicated that from about 0.7 to 1.5 per cent, or 7 to 15 per thousand, of the school population stutter. For the draft-age population of men, from 5 to 8 per thousand would appear to be a reasonable estimate of the number of stutterers.

A limited and unofficial but rather direct basis for this estimate is provided by the following few data: One Army examiner, a speech pathologist, contacted by the writer stated that he had encountered exactly ten stutterers among approximately 1,000 men interviewed by him at one induction center. They presented what he called severe secondary symptoms and were regarded as stutterers by themselves. (Incidentally this examiner reported that five of the ten stutterers were inducted and are now in the Army, unless turned back by the reception and reclassification centers; four were rejected for physical defects—not stuttering—and the other was rejected as a "psychopathic personality." In another induction center, a State Induction Station, in which he was pressed for time and did not converse with a considerable number of the men routed through, this same examiner found nine stutterers among almost 2,500 men. It is his considered judgment that he missed several of the stuttering cases in this group.

If, then, it is reasonable to assume that there are from 5 to 8 stutterers per thousand men examined at Army induction centers, it is of considerable interest to note the Surgeon General's statement that less than one man per thousand was rejected, over the period indicated, for defective speech. This, together with his further statement that probably more speech defectives are being rejected than accepted would seem to imply that roughly five out of every six stutterers rejected are rejected for stated reasons other than stuttering. Detailed information as to what these reasons are would be of great value to speech pathologists—and doubtless to the military authorities.

It is of importance to consider why examiners might not cite stuttering itself as the basis for rejection, in accordance with the official regulations governing classification. In this connection, the following considerations suggest themselves. First, the stutterers rejected may have other defects that are regarded by the examiners as disqualifying, whether or not the stuttering itself is so regarded. Second, the stuttering may be regarded merely as symptomatic of some more basic or more inclusive condition; for example, certain psychiatric examiners may be predisposed by their training to look upon stuttering as a psychoneurosis or as symptomatic of such a condition. An analysis of the dispositions made of stutterers by different examiners would be very revealing, and might well suggest some basis for more effective standardization of procedure in the classification of stutterers.

As the Surgeon General has stated,

little information is available concerning the disposition of stutterers after they are admitted into the Army. Isolated cases are known to the writer, and other cases have been reported to him by other speech pathologists. Of the stutterers who have gone into the Army from the Iowa clinic, three are in psychological research units of the Army Air Corps; one is in the communications branch of the Army; another is doing weather observation work; one, on last report about a year ago, was a corporal; another is in foreign service with the Army and at last report was a corporal, although he was rated a very severe stutterer on last examination at the Iowa clinic; one, a rather severe stutterer, was promoted to rank of corporal within a few days after induction, placed in charge of a group of men being transferred across country, and was thereafter rather promptly urged by his commanding officer to apply for officer training. One enlisted in the Army Air Corps, was directed to attend the speech clinic at Iowa University for a period of three months, and was then admitted for active training. Another was accepted for cadet training in the Army Air Corps; another is a private in an Air Base Squadron. One other stutterer, of mild degree on last examination, enlisted in the Navy. The status of others in the Iowa group is not known.

Among individual cases reported to the writer by his colleagues was one rather severe stutterer accepted by the Army Air Corps as an officer candidate. One speech pathologist wrote, "Several of the stutterers who have received treatment in this clinic are now in the armed forces and one is a lieutenant. . . . None of these men stuttered badly when he left us, however."

The matter of speech correction work within the Army is of interest to speech pathologists. There appears to be no comprehensive program of this nature, although some isolated instances of such service have come to the writer's attention. From a speech pathologist, information was obtained concerning a speech clinic which is reported to have been set up in an Army camp in Virginia, with a corporal in charge (he is not a member of the American Speech Correction Association). The clinic is part of a rehabilitation program for men in the medical replacement center.

In this general connection, it is of interest that two of the writer's former students, who at the time were technical sergeants in the Army, conducted a three-weeks speech clinic early in 1942 in one of the Midwestern camps. By means of a cursory survey of the camp, they selected 22 speech defectives, of whom 11 were stutterers and the others were cases involving either functional articulatory defects or foreign dialects. They worked with the men about two hours daily, giving both group and individual instruction. They report that the results, even with such a short period of remedial work, were surprisingly good, probably in no small part because the men were highly motivated and under the close control afforded by military discipline. The last session of the clinic was downright impressive, made so by the soldiers' heartfelt expressions of gratitude and awakened enthusiasm and confidence. The stutterers, on the average, gained some degree of freedom from speech tension and fear and showed very noticeable improvement in general social adjustment. Incidentally, the officers in charge of these stutterers reported that they were consistently good soldiers. On the whole, the experience of this short-lived speech clinic (discontinued when the two technical sergeants were transferred) indicated that the Army provides conditions definitely favorable for speech correction.

In considering the matter of speech

correction in the armed forces, a point suggested by Robert West is to be noted. This was that the increased manpower that would be made available through effective speech correction need not be offset by any considerable tieing up of manpower in the personnel of the clinics. West suggested that by concentrating the speech correction in a few camps, and by utilizing on a consultative basis such civilian members of the American Speech Correction Association as would be available near these camps, the program might well require relatively few men of military age and qualifications.

In general, then, while some examiners appear to reject stutterers rather consistently from admission to the armed forces—more often than not, apparently, for reasons other than stuttering, however—there are stutterers in the Army, a considerable number, perhaps, and there are evidently a few stutterers in the various other branches of military service. Speech defects other than stuttering appear not to be a bar to military service, unless speech is generally unintelligible, or unless the speech defect arises from mental deficiency, or psychopathic or organic causes— and these, in themselves, would usually be the basis of disqualification.

According to available information, stutterers appear, on the whole, to be serving efficiently and in a variety of assignments. A few have become noncommissioned officers and very occasionally one has risen to a commissioned rank. The writer has learned of a very few instances of speech correction work being provided for men in the Army, but as yet no systematic or comprehensive rehabilitation or adjustment program for speech defectives seems to have been undertaken or planned. Such experience as has been gained, however, indicates that Army life provides conditions favorable for effective speech correction, and that its value to the individual soldier and to the Army might well be very considerable.

Two constructive comments are, therefore, in order. The first is that examination of Army induction center records of acceptance and rejection of stutterers, and of reasons given by different examiners for rejection in such cases, should suggest a basis for more consistent and, therefore, efficient classification procedures than now appear to be in operation, considering the country as a whole. Second, a program of speech correction and psychological adjustment for stutterers and other speech defectives who are in the armed forces, particularly the Army, would appear to warrant serious consideration. After all, it is well established that stutterers as a group do not differ in intelligence from nonstutterers, and that university stutterers are mentally superior to the average of university students. It is not to be inferred that stuttering is conducive to high intelligence. It is rather likely that stuttering does serve in some cases to restrict the educational advancement of stutterers who do not possess relatively superior mental capacities. The main point is that there are a considerable number of stutterers of military age who have college or university training and are intellectually superior.

Stutterers are to be found among the prominent and successful men in practically all vocational and professional fields. By and large, they are decidedly worth working with along remedial lines. Some of them are very capable, indeed, and as a group they number in the hundred thousands and constitute a human resource that the armed forces and the nation can ill afford to neglect.

WAR RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE SPEECH CORRECTIONIST*

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TODAY there are four professional functions that speech correctionists can perform, in behalf of the war effort: (1) help to overcome speech defects in men liable for military service; (2) aid persons engaged in essential civilian activities to assume more important duties by helping them overcome handicaps of speech; (3) supply speech rehabilitation opportunities to war injury cases; and (4) maintain school and community speech correction services.

We are aware of these four functions, but some of us have had difficulty in finding a way to render them. The purpose of this article therefore, is to discuss briefly the opportunities for performance.

I

In the article preceding, Wendell Johnson has discussed the status of speech defectives in the armed forces. One conclusion to be drawn from his article is that there is need for eliminating speech defects in men who are liable for military service. Unless this task is accomplished, a proportion of stutterers and of men with severe problems of other kinds face rejection. Furthermore, those who are accepted, despite stuttering or some other marked problem, will find their maximum usefulness and opportunities for advancement curtailed by their speech difficulties, even though they will probably be successful in making basic adjustments to military life.

We must make it our business to help speech defectives enter military service and to serve more efficiently. This idea needs strong emphasis, not because we fail to see its truth, but because we have not sufficiently carried it into action. There is a tendency among us to wait for a mobilization of speech correctionists, but we cannot now tell how soon a call for speech correctionists will come; therefore, we must at present make our contributions to the war as individuals, relying on our own personal initiative, and prescribing our own duties.

There are ample civilian channels open for assisting speech defectives who are liable for military service. In the first place, we can make therapy available to men who have been rejected, and thus help them to become eligible for induction. As private citizens we can give spare time, or overtime, to this. Similarly, clinics and other organizations having appropriate facilities can make a point of accepting rejectees for treatment. We can confer with local draft boards and make known to them our willingness to assist. We can make it otherwise known throughout the community.

In the second place, we can offer increased speech re-educational opportunities to boys in the last two years of high school, for these are the boys who are approaching military age. Some school systems—as in Detroit—have already so adapted their programs. Others ought to do so, and those of us who are not associated with a high school can offer after-school help. Each of us holds a responsibility for seeing that school authorities in our locality know and understand the wartime importance of speech correction programs for high-school boys.

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* Circumstances may alter quickly during the war. This article was completed on January 15, 1943, and all its statements should be interpreted as carrying that date.

The opinions and conclusions presented are the author's, and not necessarily those of the Committee on Rehabilitation of the American Speech Correction Association. This is not an official statement by the Committee.

II

Our peacetime responsibility to adult speech defectives continues during war. Its emphasis, however, is changed by the shortage of manpower in essential civilian areas, for war has made the nation give greater attention to the handicapped. As evidence, note statements by President Roosevelt and other high officials, in addition to bills presented in Congress,[1] that stress rehabilitation of nonmilitary personnel.

Although speech defects are not incapacitating, they often interfere, as we well know, with maximum accomplishment. It is our duty, therefore, to maintain and, if possible, expand our services for adults. Through intelligent personal initiative, both individuals and clinics can contribute to their full measure of ability.

III

The task facing speech correctionists, however, includes more than helping speech defectives meet the requirements for military service or for essential civilian activity. When the wounded come home, the profession must be ready to assist in their rehabilitation. Wounds involving the brain, facial structures, and laryngeal region each affect speech in characteristic ways. Also, traumatic deafness is a common sequel to combat experience.

The American Speech Correction Association, through its National Defense Coordinator and its Committee on Rehabilitation,[2] is concerned with this problem. It is taking steps to make speech correction services available to national rehabilitation agencies as soon as is feasible.

It is too early to say what will be the program for speech re-education of war injury cases. To be efficient, this program must be related to other phases of rehabilitation. Several units of the national government are at present considering plans. As soon as a bill covering war-injury rehabilitation is passed by Congress, the pattern will have been crystallized and the relation of speech correction to the general program can be clarified.

Even though a specific speech rehabilitation program is not now determined, certain comments are in order:

First, there is the possibility that the organization used during 1918-1919 will not be repeated. Some of the plans advanced recently provide for the use of existing local agencies and the establishment of other agencies as needed.

Second, it is too early to predict the magnitude of the speech rehabilitation problem caused by war casualties. Careful study of available sources, however, makes it clear that, while the problem will be greater than some military and government officials expect, it will not be as great as some speech correctionists think.

Third, loss of hearing that is due to loud noise, to concussion, and in some cases to head wounds will be prevalent. Such loss may well constitute the most common damage to men in military service.

Fourth, the nation's first duty to every wounded fighter is to save his life and to achieve maximum physical reconstruction. Speech therapy should begin as soon as is practical within the limitations imposed by this primary necessity.

Fifth, most of the speech disturbances accompanying war neurosis are only secondarily the concern of the speech correctionist. These disturbances are usually symptoms. Psychiatrists have the responsibility for rehabilitation of such cases. Only if the speech problem persists after psychological reconstruction is complete should the speech therapist serve in more than a consultive capacity.

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[1] The La Follette bill, *S. 2714* (Second Session, 77th Congress), is the most inclusive and far-reaching in its provisions and implications.

[2] Herbert Koepp-Baker is National Defense Coordinator. The Committee on Rehabilitation was formerly known as the Committee on Emergency Defense. The committee personnel and a description of the organization within the American Speech Correction Association appear in Wendell Johnson's article immediately preceding.

Sixth, it is unlikely that *all* speech correctionists will be drawn into rehabilitation programs. (Nor, as this article emphasizes, would it be desirable.) Among the factors that will determine choice are an individual's extent and type of training, the kinds of professional experience he has had, his availability, and his willingness to fit into the organizational framework.[3]

Finally, all of us—but particularly those who anticipate working with war-injury cases—must understand both the similarities and differences between such cases and the types commonly encountered in peacetime practice. To this end, a symposium on Speech Rehabilitation for War Injury Cases was included in the 1942 convention program of the American Speech Correction Association. To this end, also, each of us should do individual study that will extend his knowledge and keep him up to date. There are many evidences that speech correctionists are eager to assist in rehabilitation. Our present task is to prepare ourselves to do so with distinction.

IV

In spite of extra duties occasioned by war, however, the prime responsibility of speech correctionists, even now, is to maintain school and community services. Some educators in positions of authority do not yet realize the full importance of speech correction. Some administrators consider it an educational luxury that can be curtailed in the name of wartime necessity. Already this has happened in some places, and other programs face the same possibility. Here is a challenge to be met, and we must meet it with a full realization of the role we should perform in the wartime educational program.

This is not the place to discuss the impact of war upon children. The subject has been adequately treated by many writers. We know, however, that disturbed schedules and new patterns of living, parental worries, disrupted homes, altered economic status, reduced supervision by adults, destruction of the sense of security, and other such factors all have their effects. It is true that children adapt themselves to some aspects of war more easily than do adults, yet children are particularly susceptible in other respects to war strain.

In such a period of added environmental strain speech disorders among children will increase, and the need for speech correction will become proportionately greater.

This added social responsibility must be met in part by developing strong preventive programs that will function (1) to protect children as much as possible from excess environmental strain, and (2) to train them to withstand inevitable environmental pressures. Obviously, we cannot accomplish this task alone. However, we can and *should* be a focal point from which springs impetus for prevention of disorders of speech among children. If prevention is important in time of peace, it is doubly so in time of war.

From its public-school correction programs to its varied speech clinics, the nation possesses a network of facilities capable of lessening the damage that war will inflict upon its children. These facilities must be used to their fullest extent. The problem, however, is to maintain them in the face of pressures that would reduce them. These pressures spring in part from persons who do not understand the contribution that can be made by speech correction. But more dangerous is the tendency for some speech correctionists to belittle the significance of their present work. To the extent that this tendency draws speech correctionists into different activities, it saps the limited pool of trained personnel now equipped to deal with mounting speech re-education needs. Nothing could destroy more rapidly the existing facilities for speech therapy, and were these facilities destroyed it would be tragedy—not only for children, but also for the adults in military and civilian life who need our help now or who will need it very soon.

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[3] The National Defense Coordinator and the Committee on Rehabilitation of the American Speech Correction Association are gathering up-to-the-minute information on persons qualified and willing to take part in a future program. Members of the ASCA wishing fuller information on this point should write to either Herbert Koepp-Baker or to a member of the Committee.

SPEECH TRAINING OF ARMY AND NAVAL OFFICERS

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UNDER present conditions teachers of speech have more than an academic interest in what the armed services consider necessary speech training for officer and prospective officer personnel. When plans for utilization of the country's educational facilities for the war effort are put into full operation, speech training, like other academic disciplines, will have to justify its place in a changed educational world by demonstrating its importance in an accelerated, intensified, and, in many respects, a narrowed training process. Training in speech now offered by Annapolis, West Point, and other service schools may indicate the organization, type of course, content, and instructional methods the Army and Navy will suggest to college and university administrators. It may be useful for teachers of speech to know what significance is attached to speech training by the responsible officers in the services, and the objectives and methods of the present training programs.

Captain Felix Johnson, Secretary of the Academic Board at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, outlines the present speech work at the Academy as follows:

> One of the missions of the Department of English, History, and Government at the Naval Academy is "to teach midshipmen to express themselves clearly, forcibly, and easily in English, both orally and in writing." To this end oral expression is continuously emphasized here; midshipmen are required to talk on their feet in recitation rooms every day, and faults are corrected as a matter of routine by the instructors.
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> During the approaching winter term midshipmen of the Fourth (freshman) Class will be given four weeks of training in public speaking. These speeches, delivered in the classroom, will consist of occasional and after-dinner speeches, plus one debate. . . .
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> Midshipmen of the First (senior) Class, in groups of twenty, attend dinners throughout the academic year. These dinners occur three times a week. After dining, the midshipmen are required to speak, and one of their number usually acts as toastmaster. These speeches are made in the presence of two instructors of the Department of English, History, and Government and of one or more invited guests. We are able in this way to have each midshipman speak at least twice in the course of the year. . . .[1]

Colonel Clayton E. Wheat, Professor in the Department of English at the United States Military Academy at West Point, reveals that the emergency has affected the curriculum there as it undoubtedly will in many schools throughout the country. Colonel Wheat writes:

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[1] Letter of November 28, 1942.

> With the reduction of our course in English from two years to one year it became necessary to curtail our formal course in Public Speaking.
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> At present we devote eighteen lessons to Public Speaking. . . . In addition we devote ten lessons to associated readings and short talks. The purpose of these lessons is to provide the cadet with factual material from which he presents a short talk of five minute duration on some idea associated with his readings.
>
> Training at West Point in Public Speaking is not limited to the English course alone. Approximately twenty-five per cent of the cadet's recitations in other subjects such as History, Economics, Government, Law and Military Art are in the nature of public speaking. During their oral recitations cadets are required to follow the rules of public speaking which they learned in their Freshman year, thus gaining practice and facility in effective presentation of individual thought.[2]

It was impossible to secure definite information about speech training in other Army schools. In response to an inquiry addressed to the War Department concerning such training and the availability of course syllabi Major General J. A. Ulio, the Adjutant General, replied:

> Speech training is given to officer instructors in the various schools operated by the Army. These courses vary with the different schools, to meet the particular needs of the arm or service concerned. Most of this training is given orally, and there is no literature of this nature available for public distribution.[3]

The relation of skill in public speaking to instruction in the Army, as well as the Army point of view about the type of speaking most useful for officers, is clearly brought out in the opening paragraphs of the chapter on public speaking in the *Officers' Guide.*

> The Army officer who can speak before an audience with clarity and logic possesses an art which will always serve him well. Commanders of troop units expend the bulk of their time in training. Training is merely another word for instruction. Much formal instruction (probably altogether too much) is given orally. Unless oral instruction is presented with good public-speaking technique, interest succumbs to boredom, understanding is replaced by confusion, and potential good soldiers are discouraged in their natural zeal to learn. It is not inaccurate to regard the commander of a troop unit as a teacher. His men must be taught before he can truly "command." Practical public-speaking ability is essential for the military leader who is charged with training troops.
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> Other duties which fall to Army officers emphasize the need for public-speaking ability. A surprising number are assigned as instructors at service schools and to units of the Reserve Officers' Training Corps, the National Guard, and the Organized Reserves. Many officers are invited to address civilian assemblies. Whenever he speaks before an audience the officer is presumed to know the facts about which he talks and to have acquired reasoned conclusions about them. Members of these groups have the right to expect the officer to express himself logically, accurately, clearly, and succinctly. Provided always that the speaker has knowledge and the power of thought, practical public-speaking ability will be of help.
>
> It can be stated with confidence that the government does not expect all of its military officers to become orators of distinction just as it cannot hope that each will develop the leadership qualities of a Pershing, a Lee, a Grant, or a Washington. . . . The Army has no pressing need for great orators, nor has it any need whatever for spellbinders and rabble-rousers. But it has a great need for officers who have knowledge, logical conclusions based upon it, and ability to impart it to others. The Army needs clear-thinking, clear-speaking, "garden variety" teachers and instructors who will become the commanders, after the training period is completed, of the military units our nation requires.[4]

The Officers' Guide, while not "official," is produced "to serve as a helpful source for informative study and inspiring counsel about many of the difficult problems which face the individual as a commissioned officer. . . ." Although many pages are devoted to articles specially prepared by outstanding officers, much of the material, including the chapter on public speaking, is unsigned. It is safe to assume, however, that any material presented meets with the general approval of the Army's ranking officers. The eight pages devoted to public speaking are, therefore, well worth the scrutiny of anyone who wishes to be familiar with the Army's idea of what is important for its officers to know about speech. The paragraph headings outline the approach and the material covered:

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[2] Letter of December 4, 1942.

[3] Letter of December 4, 1942.

[4] *The Officers' Guide,* 4th ed., The Military Service Publishing Company, Harrisburg, Pa., p. 335.

Introduction
Speech in the Instructional Process
Purpose of an Address
Determining the Correct Title of an Address
The Audience
The Importance of Preparation
Outlining the Subject
Shall the Speech Be Put in Writing?
The Introduction
Words, Sentences, and Paragraphs
Instructional Aids
The Value of Illustrative Examples
Skillful Use of Repetition
The Importance of the Conclusion
Rehearsal
Interest Factors
Means of Obtaining Emphasis
Delivery Rate in Words per Minute
Volume
Aids to Memory
How Long to Speak
Conclusion[5]

The material of the chapter is naturally slanted toward special military applications but it follows generally accepted speech theory. Few teachers of speech will have any quarrel with what is said. Those who favor a "fundamentals" approach rather than one so completely "public speaking" may wonder why the Army has found so little need to stress elements of voice and bodily action. It is evident from the letters and excerpts quoted that the approach in both service schools and in the *Guide* predominantly stresses selection and arrangement. At West Point, in fact, out of sixteen main topics covered in the theory part of the course only one deals with physical activity and only one with voice; and in the *Guide* the few references to voice or physical activity are brief and undetailed. The officer is advised to avoid distracting mannerisms, to rehearse his delivery, to make movement purposeful, to speak slowly enough so that he can enunciate clearly, and to use sufficient volume, without being too loud. It is evidently assumed that with a few general suggestions and a bit of checking before the time of presentation voice and bodily action should pretty well take care of themselves if the speaker has a real desire to communicate.

That the Army is by no means unaware of the importance of delivery is, however, evidenced in another publication in connection with a different use of speech for military purposes. The basic text on infantry training considers in detail the manner in which commands should be given, taking up distinctness, enunciation, inflection, pitch, force, volume, pause, and cadence.[6] But even here no consideration is given to the techniques by which desirable vocal control can be obtained. The desired characteristics are described; means for obtaining them are left to the ingenuity of the officer.

Intensive training in how to give distinct commands is no doubt being given at many of the training schools. It is a type of instruction in which speech teachers may have a valuable contribution to make. Anyone who had experience in the last war will recall how severe at times was the problem of good oral communication; and in many instances when there is no good oral communication there can be no effective execution of battle plans for actual combat. For with all the mechanization of modern war, personal leadership in battle is still essential. We still have the basic situation referred to in the infantry *Tactics* in which soldiers hear direct from human mouth the "best and most useful command in the drill book, that command which typifies true leadership in its expression and execution: 'Follow me!' "

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[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 335-342.

[6] *Tactics and Technique of Infantry*, 9th Ed., The Military Publishing Company, Harrisburg, Pa., II, 5-9

PUBLIC SPEAKING IN THE ARMY TRAINING PROGRAM

McDONALD W. HELD
Miami University
AND
COLBERT C. HELD
Lieutenant, Air Corps

IN THE preceding article Professor Mallory discussed the training in public speaking given by the Army and Navy to its permanent officers. His article reveals the amount and type of this training given to officers who go through the long, careful, and exact training period given to men who plan to spend their lives in the armed services.

We shall consider the subject as it pertains to the war emergency. Since war began the armed services have been multiplied twenty times and more. New men and officers are being trained in the shortest possible time, where there is so much to be done and so little time in which to do it. For example, there is not time to study many textbooks. There is not time to wait for them to be revised in terms of modern warfare and to be reprinted. Much instruction—probably most of it—must be done by lectures. Under such conditions the need for officers who can lecture effectively is almost tragic, for the lives of men may depend on how effectively a military instructor can impart information by lectures.

In spite of this, however, many directors of training and directors of instruction in training centers and schools believe that the time is too short to justify giving specialized speech courses as a regular part of the course of instruction. They want instructors who, at the start, are able to lecture. If such officers are so deficient in speech delivery that they do not improve rapidly with the aid of general instructor training, they are usually relieved from instructional assignment. The fit survive and the less fit are passed on. On the other hand, in certain schools, especially Officer Candidate Schools, public speaking is given heavy emphasis in spite of the shortness of time. In the Officer Candidate School of the Army Air Forces, for example, each candidate has to complete seven major courses (plus a larger number of shorter courses) during the 12 weeks of training. Each course is given a point rating and a candidate must receive a certain relative total number if he is to be graduated. Of the seven major courses, one called Leadership ranks high. This actually is a course in public speaking, very much like the basic public speaking course offered in any college or university in the country. It is highly condensed, with only 15 hours allotted to it at present, although consideration is being given to the possibility of advancing this to 20 hours, which is the most time given to any course in the school.

There are several interesting things

concerning this course in Leadership. In this branch of Army service the assumption is that unless a man can stand on his feet and express himself clearly and logically, make himself heard and understood, and command the attention and respect of hearers, he is not officer material. On the other hand, a man who *can* fulfill these requirements has the essential requirements for leadership, and he will be able to make the most of any material or information he has at his disposal.

Secondly, because of this assumption, this branch of the Army makes the Leadership course the *only* one in the entire curriculum in which it is possible to gain *extra* points. At the end of the instruction series, final speeches are given. The man who gives the best final speech, and the man who shows the most improvement through the course, both being chosen by a vote of the class, are awarded an extra fifty points. These points may bring a candidate's total up to the required number for graduation, even though he has fallen down in some other course.

One of the most significant points to note is that above any other course in the entire curriculum more men wash out of the school because of failure in Leadership—failure to develop the most important quality of Leadership, effective speech.

The seriousness with which members of this class approach their work is significant. It is found not only among the young men in Officer Candidate School, but also among the older men in Officer Training School. In fact, the older men show a seriousness and determination that would be an inspiring example to the younger men, if such example were needed. A brief story illustrates this point. A sentry from O.C.S. in Miami Beach, on early morning beach patrol duty, was noting the beauty of the sun's rays as they began to break above the horizon of the Atlantic Ocean. About 5:15 he heard a noise, stopped, brought his rifle to port arms, and stealthily began to trace the source of the noise. In the search he carefully moved around the corner of a cabana, and came face to face with a big, middle-aged man from O.C.S. The culprit saw the sentry, blushed a deep red over his face and bald head, but stubbornly turned back to the ocean and continued to practice his speech for that morning's class. Such seriousness is motivated largely by the importance given public speaking in the Army training program.

It is significant also to note the Army's aims and objectives for its course in Leadership. For years, teachers of public speaking have had the responsibility of trying to improve the student's mental and emotional state, as well as his intellectual capacities. Unlike courses in mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages, and other such fields, public speaking is not attained by the student's merely learning certain information from the text, important though this information may be. No student becomes proficient as a speaker until he finds a mental and emotional adjustment. Many teachers of public speaking (all successful ones) have given long hours and deep thought to the problem of individual students, analyzing their difficulties in terms of emotional needs, realizing the student's difficulties lie far below the surface. These teachers have found their greatest rewards in helping the students who were shy, timid, self-conscious, downright frightened, to develop a positive, straightforward and courageous attitude. Thus it is not sufficient merely to learn speaking techniques. One must also develop the qualities of leadership without which no speaking is effective. For this reason perhaps the Army does not name this highly important course "Public

Speaking," but calls it "Leadership." It looks beyond the means to the real end. Its officers must be leaders, and no officer can be a leader who cannot speak to groups of men in the accents of leadership.

Thus, briefly, we have examined the place of public speaking in the officers training program of the Army Air Forces. With modification, speech is given the same emphasis in officer training in other branches of the service.

Now, we should like to consider the place given public speaking in the recent editions of officers' and instructors' handbooks and manuals. To begin with, the Army Air Forces has a special course in public speaking for its instructors in technical schools. The text was written especially for instructors, in terms of presenting material to a class; but it is nothing more or less than a short, condensed course in public speaking. It is titled *Public Speaking Guide for Instructors,* and is, in point of fact, an excellent guide indeed. It is a mimeographed volume, profusely and strikingly illustrated. Its illustrations might well serve successfully and profitably in a college public speaking course.

Another manual, *The Mechanism of Instruction,* written by Colonel H. A. Dargue of the Air Corps, is concerned essentially with the process of public speaking. It includes, also, very important material for any instructor. One cannot read it without gaining a better understanding of how and why the Army has turned out such excellent instructors and, in consideration of the material, time, and pressure involved, such well trained officers.

Also used by the Army in training its officers, is the book titled *Leadership for American Army Leaders,* written by Lieutenant Colonel Edward Lyman Munson, Jr. It devotes two chapters exclusively to the essentials of speech, and almost the whole volume concerns itself with those principles that are inherently basic to public speaking courses.

We pass by the *Officer's Guide* since it already has been referred to by Professor Mallory in the article preceding, and come to what some officers think to be "by far the most important official publication of the Army on this subject": namely the Basic Field Manual 21-5, entitled *Military Training,* prepared in 1941 under the direction of the Chief of Staff, General G. C. Marshall. This manual is constantly referred to by every officer of the Army who has any responsibility for military training, regardless of his branch of service. Two of its nine sections deal with public speaking. Section VI is listed as "Instruction." It covers such methods of instruction as (a) Lectures, (b) Conferences, (c) Demonstrations, (d) Group Performance, (e) Coach-and-pupil Method, (f) Outdoor Instruction ("A small ravine or cup-shaped area makes a good amphitheater for giving a lecture."), and (g) *Rehearsal* by instructors of their lectures, demonstrations, etc., before presenting them to students! (Take note of this, teachers in civilian life!)

Section VII of this manual carries the direct title, "Public Speaking," and in the opinion of some "is probably the most important official Army comment on this subject." It is a splendidly organized chapter that recognizes that "a knowledge of the theory and practice of this subject is of great value as a means to effective instruction," and proceeds to the consideration of such basic elements as (a) Sense of Communication, (b) Physical Vitality, (c) Enthusiasm, (d) Poise and Control, (e) Genuineness and Earnestness, and (f) Aids to Delivery. A few quotations will serve to indicate the nature of this chapter:

> There is no place on the platform for the impersonal attitude, the fishy eye, the color-

> less voice. Public speaking demands the personal touch, interest in the listeners, and a very strong sense of talking to them. . . .
>
> Next to a sense of communication, the most important quality of a speaker is life, vigor, physical vitality, and animation. . . .

The implications of evidence presented in this article are plain. Effectiveness in public speaking is one of the qualities badly needed in the Army (and we have no doubt of the Navy and Marine Corps also). Insofar as it can, the Army is giving this training, and it has emphasized very heavily these factors in its manuals. *But the time is short, there is much to be done, and the Army cannot train from the beginning. It needs those who have had such training before they enter service.* To give this training ought to be the responsibility of teachers of speech in civilian life. Major Ernest H. Reed, formerly Assistant Director of Instruction in the Officer Candidate School in Grinnell, Iowa, states the problem in the following words:

> Many of the students now in our schools and colleges will no doubt become officers of the Armed Services before the present emergency has passed. These students will have a greater chance for success if they have certain speech skills at their command. Primarily, they will need to be able to give distinct commands and to present instruction effectively. Maximum use will need to be made of visual aids, and the organization and presentation of demonstrations. Above all, the prospective officer must be able to present explanations and other informational material in a clear, concise, and coherent manner, utilizing the fundamental qualities enumerated in Basic Field Manual 21-5.
>
> Speech teachers may well make a significant contribution to the total war effort, and to the individual military success of many students, if suitable training is given that will prepare those students for places of leadership in the military service.

SPEECH CURRICULA AND ACTIVITIES IN WARTIME*

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EARLY in the summer of 1942 the Committee on Problems of Speech Education was asked to prepare a report for the Wartime Commission of the United States Office of Education on "The Adaptations of the Speech Curriculum in Colleges of Arts and Sciences to Wartime Conditions." This report was prepared on the basis of data collectable in a short period of time. A letter from Dr. Lloyd Blauch of the United States Office of Education indicates that the report, together with the reports of other professional groups, will be published in the near future.

During the preparation of that report it became apparent that many anticipated adaptations were still in the planning stage, for members of the Committee received numerous requests from teachers interested in knowing what others are thinking and doing about wartime educational problems. A rather extensive analysis of conditions and report to members of the ASSOCIATION was in order.

To provide a basis for this study, on November 1 one hundred names were selected from the directory of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH and a letter containing the following questions was sent to each:

1. What professional services have you and the members of your department rendered in the prosecution of the war?
2. What changes have you made since

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* For the Committee on Problems of Speech Education.

declaration of war in your curriculum and activities program?

3. What recommendations can you make for the improvement of the service of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH to the profession and the country?

By December 15, there had been received 56 replies, distributed by region as follows: 15 from the East, 7 from the West, 4 from the South, and 30 from the Midwest. The distribution of replies from institutional type includes 10 from the secondary school, 8 from teachers colleges, 19 from the small public and four-year private colleges, and 19 from larger universities, public and private. While the distribution of replies may not have been ideal, it may be said to include a fairly broad sample of the profession.

Since this was not a quantitative but descriptive survey, no attempt will be made to treat the data quantitatively. The survey will have accomplished its purpose if we can synthesize the many replies to suggest the multiplicity of activities in which speech teachers are professionally engaged in the interests of the country, changes and adaptations they have made in the speech curriculum, and what they recognize as our individual and organized professional needs. Whenever feasible, specific quotations from the letters are cited.

PROFESSIONAL SERVICES

Almost without exception respondents are active in civilian defense activities, frequently functioning in the common capacities of citizens in these activities, but even more often acting as leaders, teachers, organizers, administrators, and speakers. These speech activities functioned in programs all the way from local educational institutions to official nation-wide organizations, and include the following:

Instructing Army and Navy officers; lecturing in Officer Candidate Schools; preparing voice training programs for Naval Intelligence units; conducting classes for Civilian Defense speakers; lecturing to workers for WPB.

Getting stutterers (4-F classification) into the Army; serving as referral agency for speech defectives in Selective Service; instituting speech correction programs in defense housing areas; organizing speech correction in public health programs.

Teaching mathematics, physics, and meteorology in the regular curriculum; teaching civilian defense workers.

Doing benefit theatricals for Army and Navy relief; producing plays for near-by training camps; organizing soldier shows.

Giving psychological tests; conducting speech tests for army inductees.

Organizing faculty conferences, community forums, information centers; organizing institutes for training discussion leaders; organizing Victory Speakers Bureaus and Community Speakers Bureaus; conducting nation-wide discussion contests.

Making speeches for scrap, preparedness, food conservation, Red Cross, Victory Bonds.

Giving television broadcasts for civilian defense; doing radio script writing and program production; making radio audience analysis.

Serving on committees for rationing and civilian defense; acting as telephonists in civilian defense control rooms.

CURRICULAR AND ACTIVITY CHANGES AND ADAPTATIONS

One of the most interesting changes has been the organization of new courses. Specific college courses developed for the emergency include:

Two Way Radio Communication
Air Traffic Control
Military Speaking and Writing
Speech Training for Military Service
Elements of Military Command and Leadership
Propaganda
Discussion Techniques Applied to Current Problems
Public Speaking in War Propaganda
Speech for Army Meteorologists
Public Speaking for Officer Training Classes
Wartime Radio Programs
War Forum Techniques

The number of regular courses has been greatly reduced, particularly at the advanced or graduate levels. Courses retained have been streamlined to speed up development of basic skills. The value of such skills is suggested by Sarah Lowrey of Baylor University:

> It is the purpose of speech to communicate. Can we help our students to eliminate regional pronunciation and ineffective enunciation and build a speech which is clear and easily understood by those to whom it is addressed regardless of their locality and background?
>
> A soldier in a Texas camp said the men in a certain company were unable to obey the commands of a Second Lieutenant because of his regional speech.

Renewed emphasis has been given to the place of speech in general education and the democratic processes. Although the value of reading poetry and fiction for morale programs is recognized for the expert in these fields, the greater value for all in attaining minimum skill in effective reading of simple informative prose is now emphasized. Training in the presentation of the propaganda or morale-building message—spoken, read, or acted—is a part of almost every institutional program.

Emergency conditions, as well as changing educational policies, are causing a reduction of interschool forensic contests and an increase in community service speaking activities. Dramatics programs are modified by priorities on production materials, shortages of men, budget limitations, functional needs of the emergency, and new opportunities for service.

There is a widespread intensification of interest in speech content. The function of speechmaking in dissemination of information is everywhere recognized as vital. Teachers are more concerned over the ethics of the speaker. Attempts are made to interest and prepare students to speak on the values of the Four Freedoms, building democracy, the needs for better citizenship, and higher patriotism. Charles F. Lindsley of Occidental College indicates:

> It is our opinion that speech departments should emphasize primarily the training of public speakers. This involves especially a wide synthesis in one's thinking, an orientation as to subject matter, and an effective training in the discrimination of evidence and reasoning processes.

Although the development of the individual personality is a matter of concern for a greater number of teachers, there is also greater interest in group thinking and planning. Speech teachers are interested in meeting the needs of a postwar world as well as the needs of the hour. Teacher training institutions are emphasizing refresher courses for teachers called back to service, the needs of all teachers in adjustments to the emergency, and the preparation of teachers to meet postwar problems. In the words of Paul Crawford of Northern Illinois State Teachers College:

> It is my observation that business men and other adults who have not had a college education cannot make clear to audiences the relationship of certain immediate tasks to the long time objectives in this war. People who are not college trained do not have the background to perceive these relationships and in many instances would not have the skill to make clear these relationships even if they did perceive them. Therefore, college trained speakers can perform the task of educating community groups in needs that cannot be adequately handled by other speakers. For this reason, we have continued to place a premium on thorough analytical consideration of the issues involved in winning the war and in winning the peace.

In several institutions the total curricular pattern is undergoing careful analysis with planning for widespread reorganization to better meet the needs of students both during and after the war.

These letters are impressive in the frequency with which the thought is expressed that there has been little need for widespread curricular reorganization. What was good speech education in 1932 is good speech education in 1942, and there is abundant faith that it will be good speech education in 1952. Let us cite a few specific statements. Says Gerald Marsh of the University of California:

> In a department dedicated to the ideals of a liberal education, the attempt to change completely the direction of that work and the overthrowing of those ideals will help to achieve more completely the defeat of the very values for which we fight.

Bower Aly of Missouri writes:

> Our curriculum has not been changed, but our courses have been somewhat modified because the pace is speeded up tremendously. Our essential methods, however, we believe to have been sound in the past, and we are continuing them for the present.

James Holm of Kent State University states:

> We have made few changes in our objectives and methods of teaching. I think that we are stressing the ethical side of our subject more than mere performance, attempting to give the students a feeling of "Why" as well as "How."

Norma Ostby of Concordia College reports:

> I cannot truly say that our objectives in speech education have changed. Perhaps there is an even greater urgency to make our students alert intelligent citizens, but this has always been one of my major objectives.

Many sound a warning note reflected in the statement by Roy C. McCall of the College of the Pacific:

> I have made as great an effort to avoid being thrown off balance in objectives and methods as I have to adapt to the war circumstance. I feel that we are often too prone to become "busy" changing our ways to meet a crisis when what we really ought to do is to exercise every precaution against allowing the crisis to force us off the course toward basic goals and reduce our efficiency by introducing confusion.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following series of recommendations may be considered a member's platform for the ASSOCIATION. Although it is already following some of these policies, and may not find it possible to carry out other specific recommendations, the program should receive the careful consideration of the War Committee, the Educational Committee and the Executive Officers of the ASSOCIATION. There are four basic proposals in this platform.

I. *Adhere firmly to basic principles of speech education.* This means first of all that in most of our activities we have been making a sound contribution to education. We must not abandon that program. In the words of past President, A. B. Williamson, of New York University:

> A recommendation to the profession is that they continue to keep away as much as possible from the immediate and transient and to adhere, like grim death, to those ideals and disciplines of education that are proven and basic.

McCall asks that we "continue our fact-finding" and supported by Palmer of Wichita, "declare war against quackery and artificiality in the fringes of the profession." Many insist that this is the time to cut our program to its most practical fundamentals, but to pursue these objectives with renewed determination. There appears to be a perennial need for clarifying the educational functions of modern speech programs to administrators of curricula both in and out of our armed forces. As Gail E. Densmore of the University of Michigan suggests:

> The teacher of speech has never before had the opportunity to demonstrate the value of his work to the public as he now has in participating himself and in having his students participate in the various speech activities pertaining to the war effort.

II. *Develop a wartime speech educa-*

tion program. This should include such features as the following:

A. Determine ways in which speech training may be useful in training military personnel, and cooperate in providing a program for that training. This requires a three-step program.

First, thorough studies must be made of what can and should be done. W. Norwood Brigance of Wabash College, an Army officer in World War I, and Major Ernest H. Reed, an Officer Candidate School director in this war, recommend a three-point core for such curricula to include: 1. Training in use of microphones for communication; 2. Training on how to give commands that sound like commands; and 3. Training in how to give lectures to men in military service to "keep awake 250 men at 1:00 P.M. for an hour on the subject of military sanitation." Secondly, the program must adequately be represented to the men who have the power to authorize it. And third, qualified teachers must be placed in charge of that program.

The remainder of the program demands such activities as enlistment with the Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel, enlargement of the activities of the placement bureau, or some new means devised for placing the names of qualified candidates in the hands of military men who direct these programs. Many teachers have indicated that they are willing to accept such appointments if called.

B. Keep informed and actively at work on the ways in which speech training may be useful in serving the civilian population at war. Wholehearted cooperation with the Office of War Information, the Office of Civilian Defense, and the Treasury Department is the first plank in such a program. Holding ourselves ready to speak on wartime problems, training speakers, and organizing speakers bureaus are the focal activities. Special analysis of and training for the uses of speech in war industries are also recommended. A professional committee appointed for the purpose of giving advice on scripts for wartime speeches is suggested by George Bohman of Dartmouth and Forrest Whan of Wichita.

C. Plan the work of educational committees so that they make their maximum contribution to the regular curricula of educational institutions both for wartime and postwar needs. The educational committees of the ASSOCIATION have a responsibility here that must not be overlooked.

D. Coordinate work with centrally organized programs where possible, but local programs need not be held up because they are not directed on a national scale. Members of the profession may find many opportunities for service in their own communities by taking the initiative in exercise of leadership. Such local leadership may meet local need more effectively than centrally directed plans and in several cases has resulted in recognition and use of such experimentally developed plans on a broad scale.

E. Organize effective means for the dissemination to the profession of information about wartime education activities. Our present publication program contributes to this end, but there is a demand for a program that can operate more speedily than is possible with the present publications. A monthly bulletin, or series of special bulletins, has been suggested. There is a widespread interest among our members in what others are doing, and a thirst for suggestions as to what may be done. A useful contribution of such a bulletin would be the rapid dissemination of information about important source materials on curricular and activity programs.

III. *Maintain the organization of a broad policy-making War Committee with power to act for the* ASSOCIATION.

This War Committee should coordinate the work of all areas in the profession and of all committees of the ASSOCIATION. It should mobilize the resources of the profession. It should officially represent the ASSOCIATION in offering these resources to whatever agencies of government are in need of them. It should extend aid to teachers of the nation in meeting needs of their communities.[1]

IV. *The Executive Council and the entire membership of the* ASSOCIATION *well may be charged with the responsibility of planning carefully to insure successful exercise of educational leadership.* The need for such direction is suggested by the following respondents:

First, Ray K. Immel of Southern California writes:

> I think that a bit of conservatism is necessary in estimating our services and in offering them. I know the tendency in many minds to overrate at least certain phases of speech education and its value to the national cause. It is my guess that more sober thought will lead us to lay certain of our courses on the shelf. Such a move could free faculty members in part and enable them to put in their time in ways that would be more directly valuable in the cause of defense.

Hurst Anderson of Allegheny College states:

> The principal recommendation that I would have to make to N.A.T.S., is that they do not try to engage in practices which are unnecessary to the war effort. I think the danger in our present situation is that in trying to perpetuate its existence, an organization will find something of secondary importance to busy itself with, when it might better forget this, and enter into those activities which are of primary importance.

A series of such recommendations has been well stated by Jasper V. Garland of Colgate.

> It seems to me that any program ought to keep in view at least these items:
>
> 1. It ought to be as intellectually honest as it can be. It will be difficult to keep the political fringe of the ASSOCIATION from manipulating it into a job-making prestige-adding foray. We can justify only essential jobs, honestly and competently executed.
> 2. It ought to be constructive. It need not be large or ambitious. There ought to be a place in adult education—discussion work. There ought to be a place for a few basic experiments.
> 3. It ought to be cooperative. We should be willing to do subordinate jobs without the speech label.
> 4. It ought to be realistic. Actual observation and study of specific needs of the armed forces and civilian defense should reveal specific jobs.
> 5. It ought to be permeated by the experimental attitude. If this is the case, we ought to learn from the emergency.
> 6. It ought to include a careful study of possibilities in government service for teachers of speech—not necessarily in the same type of jobs but things which they might do. The members might be kept informed of civil service openings.

Such are the present services being rendered by members of the ASSOCIATION and the recommendations for their improvement. Other recommendations, not here included, have been placed in the hands of the War Committee. Suggestions for further service that might be rendered by the Committee on Problems of Speech Education will be welcome.

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[1] On December 27, 1942, the Executive Council enlarged the War Committee and authorized it to act for the ASSOCIATION in these matters. For the latest published report of the War Committee, see the JOURNAL, February 1943, page 130.

SOCRATIC DIALECTIC AND MODERN GROUP DISCUSSION

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ANY article that redefines the character of the Socratic method of dialectic is likely to be looked upon with disfavor because each of us already has a conception of at least some of the doctrines of Socrates. With this point in mind, the object here is to deal with the Socratic dialectic in a more complete manner than has been the case with some traditional interpretations of the Socratic method. This is done in order to identify the specific principles of the dialectical method of Socrates and to show in what respect these principles are a contribution to modern group discussion.

I

It is difficult to appraise the dialectic of Socrates unless we are able to isolate some of the dominant tendencies of democratic Athens. In other words, we must look to the social scene, the education, beliefs, and ideals of the Athenians, if we wish to know the real import of the Socratic system.

The democracy of Pericles provided the Athenians with an opportunity for freedom of thought and individuality. In fact, this freedom from compulsion is responsible to a large degree for the many accomplishments of Athens. On the other hand, however, the Athenians were extremely skeptical of all Greek institutions and moral standards.[1] The statement of Protagoras that "man is the measure of all things" has been interpreted as meaning that there is no real truth in human relationships except in so far as truth means that each individual evaluates on the basis of his personal sensations and impressions. Briefly stated, this doctrine assumes that sense perception is our only source of knowledge, and that the contradictory nature of sense experience makes knowledge impossible. This attitude is reflected in the political life of Athens for we find that "justice," for example, meant one thing to the rich man and something entirely different to the poor man. Socrates, like many other intellectual leaders of his age, was critical of prevailing beliefs, but at the same time he held that sound judgments in the social realm are possible. That is to say, a certain belief is either good or bad, irrespective of the personal interests of the individuals who pass judgment.

A second factor we should understand is the important role that persuasion played in the social and political life of Athens. There is much to support the conclusion that public address had a greater influence in the fourth and fifth centuries B.C. than in any former or succeeding period. The basic objection which Socrates made against persuasion was that the great orators and statesmen did not have a clear idea of the very words they most often used.[2] As a result, says Socrates, speakers mislead both themselves and their audiences. His dialectic was designed to strike at the roots of faulty reasoning by destroying vague and mistaken notions. In place of these "false opinions" Socrates wished to substitute valid "concepts."[3]

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[1] See Eduard Zeller, *Plato and the Older Academy*, trans. S. F. Alleyne and A. Goodwin (London, 1888), p. 148; and Charles M. Bakewell, *Plato's Republic* (1928), pp. xxii-xxiv.

[2] See especially George Grote, *A History of Greece* (London, 1888), VII, 109-112.

[3] We tend to indict the professional teachers of Greece, the sophists, for the widespread Athenian skepticism and for the rhetoric of deception. It is more accurate to say that the sophists merely reflected the spirit of the age, and, as such, may be criticized for doing nothing to improve conditions.

II

The findings presented in this paper are based upon Socratic dialectic as illustrated in the early "Socratic" dialogues of Plato and some additional references which are given us by Xenophon and Aristotle.

Platonic dialogues here considered are the *Apology, Euthyphro, Crito, Laches, Protagoras, Ion, Lesser Hippias, Lysis, Menexenus, Euthydemus,* and *Gorgias.* There is some difficulty in showing that these dialogues are strictly of a Socratic nature even though they deal mainly with the quest for definition and do not develop the Platonic Doctrine of Ideas.[4] Zeller, for instance, calls the *Lysis, Euthydemus, Menexenus,* and *Gorgias* transitional dialogues which were written later than the Socratic writings but prior to the works depicting Plato's World of Ideas.[5] A number of other scholars, with the exception of Taylor, consider all of the dialogues listed to be representatives of the Socratic stage of Plato's logic.[6]

Much more could be said in favor of the view that the earlier dialogues of Plato are the proper source for an understanding of the dialectic of Socrates. In the first place, they present the procedure in discussion which both Xenophon and Aristotle credit to Socrates. Secondly, Plato's later works such as the *Phaedo, Republic, Phaedrus, Cratylus,* and *Meno* differ from the earlier dialogues both in method and in content. In these dialogues, as well as in the greatest of Plato's logical works and the *Laws,* Plato shows that he is a politician, logician, and metaphysician, whereas the earlier dialogues deal largely with fundamental ethical concepts.[7] Moreover, with respect to form, Plato departs from the Socratic method of cooperative investigation. The Socratic quest for knowledge is displaced by Plato's arguments designed to prove a definite system of philosophy.

III

We may now explain the dialectic of Socrates in some detail. In so doing, it is of some interest to know that we are dealing with the earliest systematized use of dialectic as a constructive method of problem-solving.[8]

A. *Dialectic Defined.*—Socratic dialectic is a *cooperative search for valid judgments through the use of alternate question and answer.* The discussion proceeds *inductively* by setting out a large number of *examples* and *analogies* that serve as a basis for the acceptance or rejection of a proposed hypothesis.

The Socratic system is thus a procedure in thinking that enables man to formulate correct definitions or concepts. For instance, it was his custom to ask a respondent for a definition of such terms as "piety," "justice," "prudence," and the like. If a definition was offered it was considered as a tentative judgment. We then have a host of particular actions which are brought forward and which all participants agree upon as signs of "piety," "justice," or "prudence." From the study of these particulars the universal definition is either accepted, amended, or wholly rejected. In conformity with this interpretation, we have Aristotle's statement that "two things may be fairly ascribed to Socrates—inductive argument and universal definition, both of which are concerned with the starting-point of science."[9]

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[4] Paul Shorey shows how difficult it is to distinguish Socrates from the Platonic Socrates: "But the ideal Socrates of the Platonic dialogues and the hypothetical Socrates of history do constitute a double star which not even the spectrum analysis of the latest philosophy can ever resolve." Paul Shorey, *What Plato Said* (Chicago, 1933), p. 19.

[5] Eduard Zeller, *Outlines of the History of Greek Philosophy,* trans. L. R. Palmer (1931), pp. 121-126.

[6] See Wincenty Lutolawski, *The Origin of Plato's Logic* (1905), pp. 194-218; Paul Shorey, *op. cit.*, p. 69; and A. E. Taylor, *Plato* (1927), pp. 23-173.

[7] With the exception of the latest dialogue, the *Laws,* the *Theaetetus, Parmenides, Sophist, Statesman, Philebus, Timaeus,* and *Critias* are the latest of the works of Plato.

[8] Zeno of Elea has been called, upon the authority of Aristotle, the inventor of dialectic. See Diogenes Laertius, *Lives of Eminent Philosophers,* trans. R. D. Hicks (London, 1925), IX, 24-26. Since Zeno's subtle and devastating arguments are wholly refutative in nature, Zeller shows that Socrates is the author of dialectic as a constructive method of definition. See Eduard Zeller, *Plato and the Older Academy, op. cit.*, p. 150.

Dialectic in the Socratic sense is a cooperative search for "truth as an unknown."[10] With direct reference to Socrates, Xenophon states: "The very word 'discussion,' according to him, owes its name to the practice of meeting together for common deliberation, *sorting, classifying* things after their kind."[11] In like manner, Aristotle reports that dialectic is investigative rather than contentious, although, of course, questioning may easily become a deceptive technique.[12]

When we say that Socratic dialectic is cooperative we do not necessarily mean that all of the statements of Socrates in Plato's dialogues are representative of the dialectical method. Sometimes, indeed, Socrates may appear to be unfair in his questioning. If we wish to see the real contrast between mere disputation and Socratic dialectic, however, we should read the *Euthydemus*. Better still, perhaps, are the discussions Socrates carries on with his students in the *Charmides, Laches,* and *Lysis* in which the true dialectic is preserved. Finally, we may quote Plato directly on this point when Socrates is questioned in the *Meno* with respect to what answer he would give to an individual who opposed one of his definitions. Socrates states:

> I should have told him the truth. And if he were a philosopher of the eristic sort, I should say to him: You have my answer, and if I am wrong, your business is to take up the argument and refute me. But if we were friends, and were talking as you and I are now, I should reply in a milder strain and more in the dialectician's vein; that is to say, I should not only speak the truth, but I should make use of premises which the person interrogated would be willing to admit. And this is the way in which I shall endeavor to approach you.[13]

In short, the fact that Plato does not always picture Socrates as a "hesitating inquirer" in no way affects our interpretation of the dialectical method. In situations, for example, in which a respondent refuses to attend to serious inquiry, we cannot expect to have "common deliberation."

B. *Purposes of Dialectic.*—When Xenophon quotes Socrates as saying that "men become supremely good and happy"[14] through the practice of dialectic, he means that: (1) fallacious beliefs are destroyed; (2) valid concepts are formed; (3) moral improvement is effected, and (4) the intellectual training provided has immediate personal and social utility.

We see, then, that dialectical activity has greater implications than simply formal training in correct reasoning. The Socratic concepts are basic to individual and political conduct. They should not be thought of as simple definitions that can be discovered with little intellectual effort. On the contrary, they are vital problems that man must face if he is to perform his real function as a thinking being.[15]

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[9] Aristotle, *Metaphysics,* trans. W. D. Ross, *The Works of Aristotle* (Oxford, 1908), VIII, 1078^{b}.

[10] George Grote, *Plato* (London, 1865), I, 240.

[11] Xenophon, *Memorabilia,* trans. E. C. Marchant (London, 1923), IV, 5.

[12] Aristotle, *Topics,* trans. O. F. Owen (London, 1853), I, 2, and VIII, 11. See also James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *The Principles and Methods of Discussion* (1939), pp. 15-18.

[13] *Meno,* trans. B. Jowett, 75. The translations of Plato's dialogues used in this paper are those of Lane Cooper and B. Jowett. References to the *Ion* and *Gorgias* are taken from Lane Cooper's *Plato* (London, 1938); the citations from *Euthyphro, Apology,* and *Crito* are also from Lane Cooper's *Plato* (Ithaca, 1941). All other references to the dialogues of Plato are from the five volume, third edition of *Plato* by B. Jowett (Oxford, 1892).

[14] Xenophon, *Memorabilia,* IV, 5.

[15] Plato gives the concepts of Socrates a metaphysical interpretation. While he accepted the method of universal definition, he believed that the definition could not have a sensible thing as its object because sensible things are always changing. Thus Platonic dialectic becomes a theory of science that raises the universal definition to an unchangeable or objectivized Idea. See especially Aristotle, *Metaphysics,* 978^{b}, 1078^{b}, and 1086^{b}.

Often a discussion of Socrates is negative in nature, that is, no definite conclusion is reached. In such cases Socrates considers the dialectical process to have value because false beliefs are exposed and steps are taken toward sounder conceptions. In other words, tentative and negative conclusions in no way lessen the significance of training in logical analysis.

C. *Principles of the Dialectical Method.*—Some of the exact principles of procedure which Socrates followed in a discussion will add to what has been said concerning the definition and purposes of dialectic.

1. *Place of Definition.*—The concepts formulated in discussion are prerequisites to the solution of a specific problem. This, as Xenophon shows, is the first step which Socrates takes when a problem arises:

> When anyone argued with him on any point without being able to make himself clear, asserting but not proving, that so and so was a wiser or an abler politician or braver or what not, he would lead the whole discussion back to the definition required, much in this way.
>
> "Do you say that your man is a better citizen than mine?"
>
> "I do indeed."
>
> "Then why didn't we first consider what is the function of a good citizen?"[16]

In this instance we see that the definition is designed both to clarify the problem and also to outline standards or criteria by which the two views may be appraised.

2. *Function of Questioning.*—Socrates often states that the dialectical method is not one in which he sets forth knowledge. Rather, his use of questions serves to draw forth valid ideas from his respondent. The assumption is that if an individual is questioned properly he will, through his own thinking, discover whether an opinion is sound or unsound. The "sifting of particulars" simply means that specific cases are studied by the respondent as a part of the process of testing a tentative judgment. The Socratic questioning is therefore a "bringing-out process rather than a putting-in." When Socrates compares himself to a "gadfly on a great and noble horse,"[17] we see that he conceives of questioning as a procedure that stimulates thinking.

The use of questions also contributes to accuracy because the respondent is permitted to express his real point of view. Thus in the *Gorgias* Socrates states: "I ask so that we may not fall into the habit of catching at each other's meaning in advance, by guesswork."[18]

3. *Conversational Speaking.*—Socrates consistently maintains that dialectic is superior to rhetoric. He shows that in continuous discourse the speaker veils his fallacious reasoning with words of many meanings and that the argument is diverted from the real point of issue. The controversy between rhetoric and the newer science of dialectic is fully developed in the *Protagoras*. Socrates expresses his point of view with a touch of irony, when he says:

> Protagoras, I have a wretched memory, and when anyone makes a long speech to me I never remember what he is talking about. As then, if I had been deaf, and you were going to converse with me you would have to raise your voice; so now, having such a bad memory, I will ask you to cut your answers shorter, if you would take me with you.[19]

Alcibiades enters the controversy between Socrates and Protagoras and accuses the great rhetorician of "slipping away from the point, and instead of answering, making a speech at such length that most . . . hearers forget the questions at issue." Hippias, pictured by Plato as the peacemaker, requests Socrates to avoid extreme brevity. Similarly, he reproves Protagoras by advising him against going "forth on the gale with every sail set out of sight of land into an ocean of words."[20]

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[16] Xenophon, *Memorabilia*, IV, 6.

[17] *Apology*, 31.

[18] *Gorgias*, 454.

[19] *Protagoras*, 334.

4. *Reflective Deliberation.*—The Socratic method of testing hypotheses by a careful study of the particulars does not differ materially from John Dewey's interpretation of reflective thinking.[21] Also, Francis Bacon, who opposed much of classical logic, gives explicit approval to Socratic dialectic because of its likeness to his system of induction.[22] In brief, the dialectic of Socrates exemplifies the Baconian "logic of discovery."

Socrates attaches great significance to the fact that several minds are simultaneously engaged in inquiry. All participants profit by mutual exchange of ideas. For example, Socrates states that "it is not, in fact, from knowledge I am sure of that I speak but rather I am seeking with you in a common search."[23] The "sifting of particulars" is thus not only carried on co-operatively but also on a critical scientific basis.

5. *Detection of Fallacies.*—The dialectical method may be called a protest both against Athenian skepticism and against the crooked thinking of the average Athenian and the great leaders of Athens. Socrates discovers that the rhetoricians, poets, politicians, and artisans are living under a cloud of ignorance. These people show evidence of what he calls "conceit of knowledge," because they do not subject their beliefs to rigorous examination. It would be interesting to cite the specific fallacies that Socrates exposes but the limitations of this paper do not permit further treatment.[24]

IV

We can readily identify a number of principles that are common to Socratic dialectic and modern group discussion. This is not to say that the two are wholly alike, but there are a number of striking similarities.

The relationships of similarity include: (1) Both are representative of the scientific method as applied to social problems and therefore typify what has been called a "logic of discovery"; (2) both exemplify co-operative inquiry as opposed to contentious debate; (3) both insist upon conversational speaking rather than continuous discourse; (4) both methods are deliberately designed to expose fallacies in reasoning; (5) both have problem-solving or learning as their object, although a specific solution is not necessarily a requirement of the discussion; and (6) Socratic questioning seeks to promote the thinking of the respondent and in this respect is related to the function performed by the discussion leader.

The problems for discussion that Socrates used are somewhat different from those that we select for our discussions. This is not always the case, but in the main Socratic problems are general rather than specific. For example, if Socrates were asked to appraise a legislative proposal, he would direct his attention to the question: *What is good legislation?* The point is that if the fundamental definition can be formulated, the specific proposal can easily be evaluated. This is, in fact, the central doctrine of Socrates. The failure to form valid concepts, according to him, is the primary deficiency of the thinking of most people. Our present procedures in discussion make use of this Socratic principle in the analysis of the problem. The universal definition of Socrates is comparable to "*criteria* for measuring possible solutions to the problem."[25] The dialectic of Socrates thus gives added emphasis to the importance of one of the steps in reflective thinking that is sometimes neglected.

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[20] *Protagoras,* 336-338. This Socratic opposition to "amplitude of expression" recurs again and again in the dialogues of Plato. See *Gorgias,* 449; *Lesser Hippias,* 373; and *First Alcibiades,* 105.

[21] John Dewey, *How We Think* (1910), pp. 6-9.

[22] Francis Bacon, *Novum Organum,* included in *The Philosophical Works of Francis Bacon,* ed. James Spedding, Robert L. Ellis, and Douglas D. Heath (London, 1875), IV, 97-98.

[23] *Gorgias,* 506.

[24] Note especially *Gorgias,* 470, 472-473; *Euthydemus,* 278; *Apology,* 18, 39; *Laches,* 178.

V

In conclusion, we can say that Socratic dialectic is a plan of scientific inquiry used in an attempt to arrive at sound decisions on social problems. While the dialectical process is generally applied to the problem of universal definition, the definitions of Socrates are basic to the solution of immediate practical problems. In these respects, as well as with regard to specific principles of procedure, the dialectic of Socrates is similar to our contemporary theory of group discussion.

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[25] James H. McBurney and Kenneth G. Hance, *op. cit.*, p. 171.

THE RHETORIC OF THE AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

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THE physician, the philosopher, and the orator were engaged in polite disputation. The question before them was, which one of the three—healer, thinker, or man of eloquence—was the most useful citizen. It was one of those bloodless encounters common in the Roman Empire, when regimentation in the class-room squelched all that was liberal in education, and the individualism of the Church arose to challenge State orthodoxy.

The physician contended that that profession was most useful which most benefited men in the aggregate. He accepted the contribution of the thinker. He agreed that orators were powerful in judicial cases. He admitted that orators sometimes exonerated the guilty in litigation, so powerful were they. But he wanted to know, if justice was to prevail, just how this sort of skill benefited the State. All things come finally to this, he declared: *"In what have you benefited the State?"*

Do we in speech agree with the physician in the matter? Do our textbooks reflect that agreement, and recognize the responsibility implied in it? If so, at what point in the geography of rhetoric does the skilled speaker become collective in his outlook? Or does this point of view lack respectability in a society nurtured in the defiant individualism of Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, and proud of the iron-fisted aggressiveness of the covered wagon? How *free* is an individual in a democracy to exploit his own individuality, and how *free* is speech? Whatever the answer, it concerns the composition of the speaker-hearer-context relationship, and the kind of rhetoric common to American democracy.

I

In totalitarian society the citizen agrees with the physician. He believes with indoctrinatal fervor that he, individually, is nothing, that the State is everything, omniscient, all-powerful. He dutifully accepts the tablets prepared and handed down from high Olympus. He bows to the throne in all its whims. The General Assembly, accordingly, becomes a listening post, and the law court becomes a military tribunal. A Bill of Rights is a satiric incongruity. The ministry of education functions as a wheel of the State propaganda mill; and speech education, seeking survival in the classroom, avoids current controversy as it would avoid the bubonic plague.

Rhetorically, the totalitarian is an arch Sophist, and we have but to turn to the history of oratory to note what fine feathers mark him as a speaker. Having nothing cogent to offer, he exercises the faculty of speech as a horn-tooting device; and, seeking compensation for a lost personality, he declaims to fellow stooges in praise of the powers-that-be, or (what amounts to the same thing) in dispraise of their enemies. The task of speech education in a despotism is as simple as yelling *Heil Hitler!* in the Reichstag. It is based on the premise that the individual is nothing, the State is absolute.

II

But free society is another matter. There, instead of totalitarianism, is the individual unrestrained. Sometimes he represents the violence of truculent genius, sometimes the softness of frothy grandstanding. In either case, he is sorely addicted to his own predilections, predilections that rake his nettled soul day and night, and which lie close to his own special comforts, his privileges, his profits, his prestige. He harbors an assurance that sovereignty resides within himself, that he is the captain of his soul in a real and detached sense.

The case of the Hindu priest is illustrative. In the progression of Gandhi, he, we are told, standing on the brink of his much-sought Nirvana, would not so much as nod his head to hinder (should the opportunity arise) the perpetration of some grave crime against society, if, by so doing, he would delay for an instant his own advance toward Elysium. That is *self* run riot. It would succeed better in isolation than in a democracy, where associative responsibilities are fundamental to an overall happiness. In cases like that of the Hindu mystic, it amounts to civil disobedience, and it stems from the psychology that the individual owes everything to himself, nothing to society.

The egocentric is found in all latitudes. He is even present in a goose-stepping economy, fretting the hours until he can unhorse the master. Contemporary America knows him. On the score of conscience he may stand in open defiance of some law of the land, or head some clique, or bloc, and glibly propagandize his purpose in lobby and press. In an earlier decade he was marked by the slogan, "Root, hog, or die." More recently he found expression in the phrase, "The public be damned." In the struggles of the Early Church he walked serenely into the smoke and flames of his own funeral pyre, murmuring, "Thy will be done," as if it were better that he die for his own salvation rather than to live for another's cause.

In hours of crisis our individualist speaks out bluntly, indignantly, unflinchingly, as Garrison, and Vallandigham, and Ingersoll, spoke out. "Don't worry about the charge of treason to your masters," advised Eugene V. Debs, in World War I, "but be concerned about the treason that involves yourselves. I have been accused of obstructing war. I admit it. Gentlemen, I abhor war. I would oppose the war if I stood alone."

The self-expressionist speaks as a man apart from his fellows, unwilling or unable to interpret the general welfare in a spirit of co-operation and mutual respect. Ineptness of this sort is more heroic than democratic. It implies that the part is at least the equal of the whole. It breaks down the high impersonal standard that serves to restrain a man from becoming smug and unctious. *In contrast, democratic utterance originates at the point in rhetoric where, on a basis of reason, the man speaking relaxes his* *egoism in deference to public purposes. The primary function of speech is to make co-operation respectable.*

Mr. Justice Holmes took this position. In World War I, one Schenck circulated a statement in which draftees were urged to resist the draft law openly, for by the act of compliance they might disparage the very "rights it is the solemn duty of all citizens" to ~~maintain and~~ defend. He rested his case on the presumption that free speech is an absolute, allowing any man the privilege of saying anything, to anyone, anytime, anywhere. Declared Mr. Justice Holmes in rebuttal, "The most stringent protection of free speech would not protect a man in falsely shouting fire in a theatre and causing a riot."

But, on the gallows in Edinburgh, Richard Rumbold in the seventeenth century justified the creed of uncompromising self-expression on the faith that all men are equal in the sight of God. The Maker never marked one man above another, he declared, "for none comes into the world with a saddle on his back, neither none booted and spurred to ride him." Accordingly, what else except a man's conscience, and who else except a man's God, should initiate his behavior?

Wendell Phillips was among those who carried the Rumbold philosophy to its farthest outpost. Retorting to Daniel Webster, he avowed that he and his associates intended, "to trample under foot the Constitution of this country." Lord Brougham condoned recalcitrance of this sort, assuming that above all human enactments there exists a "law written in the heart of men by the finger of his Maker." A Higher Law is thus thrust into democratic procedures, and Church and State thereby become tangled in an attempt to respect the integrity of all men, individually.

Self-expressionists and group-expressionists are the concomitants of social organization. The former tends to promote the sort of speech heard at Babel. The latter echoes the prerogatives of constituted authority and vested interests. Yet, the two are cognate brands of excess, each brand seeking its ends without due regard for the delicate interrelationships involved in the speaking situation. The task of democracy is to bring the extremes into harmony with themselves, and with the vast in-between group of citizens. Discussion plays a major part in the procedure.

III

Rhetorically, democracy is a form of action that seeks to keep a balance between the rights of the individual, the rights of the group, and the ideology of the state. Upset it in favor of the speaker, and individualism runs loose and wild. Favor the audience too much, and speaker and text are de-emphasized. Stress the theme unduly, and human values may be made to suffer. How may the speaker strike a just balance in this triad, and thus speak to democratic ends? How bring "self and non-self" into mutuality? That is the crux of a difficulty which has plagued men wherever they have sought to walk upright and tall.

Delegates to the American Constitutional Convention faced this paradox in all its fierceness, and many were the solutions proposed. Alexander Hamilton declared that stability was the underlying principle to be built in the new government. To this end he urged that, as an antidote to group passions and misinformation, a Senate be set up to serve as a balance wheel for the popular assembly which was so inclined to be "misguided by ignorance, by sudden impulses, and the intrigues of ambitious men." And how compose the clash between the States and the General Government? The local unit, declared Hamilton, should always give way to the larger unit, "when a sacrifice of one or the other is necessary. . . . There must be a perpetual accommodation and sacrifice of local advantages to general expediency."

The whole is greater than the part, declared Hamilton, and collaboration is the key to amity between clashing forces. John C. Calhoun expressed the same philosophy somewhat differently in 1848. Society cannot exist without government, he premised. Government means the restriction of the random freedom of the individual. To this end, the individual must subordinate himself to the welfare of the general whole. Without this sacrifice on his part, his own freedom is imperiled. But no restriction should be imposed on him that is unnecessary to the safety of the whole.

In sum, the individual's freedom ends where the safety of the State begins. So it is in rhetoric. But how determine the extent of this accommodation? Edmund Burke rested the matter on his own reasoned judgment. He held that a legislator owed his constituents his power of mind as well as his industry, and for him to jump at conclusions reflected unfavorably on his own integrity as a man and a citizen. Not that the crowd should not express itself on any issue. It should. The elector should listen respectfully to that expression. But such opinion was in no way binding on him. It was but a clue indicating a figment of national purpose. By putting clues together, he was better prepared to fashion an overall policy for the nation, posed on "the general reason of the whole."

Some speakers, on the other hand, look for the point of accommodation between individual and group on the scales of hierarchical postulates. The case of John Winthrop is suggestive. A man called to office by the people, he declared, in his "Little Speech on Liberty," *ipso facto* acquired authority from God to govern the people "by the rules of God's laws and our own, according to our best skill." Thus, a citizen lacks the liberty to do as he pleases, for this implies that he is *free* to do evil as well as good. Civil liberty, in sum, is a covenant between God and man. It is so implied in Constitutions. It is similar to the liberty accorded a wife, Winthrop explained, in his famous comparison: The wife freely chooses her husband but, having chosen him, she holds herself to him, not in bondage but in liberty. The good folk of Salem, then, should "quietly and cheerfully submit unto that authority which is set over" them, "in all the administrations of it," *designed for their good.*

The Great Commoner type of orator popular in the United States looks to the people to point out the line separating the liberty of the individual from the liberty of the State. Abraham Lincoln represented that approach. Frontier born, he went to the crowd, and tuned his ear to its every syllable and accent. He came to recognize the multitude as his *alter ego,* and to believe that if the voice of the community was not the voice of God, it was the nearest thing to it that men had ever heard. The crowd's will was his will, with reservations. His task as a citizen was to discover what that will was in any situation. His duty as a legislator was to represent that will faithfully in the General Assembly, and his bias as a speaker was to honor it in discussion. Lincoln, like Winthrop, agreed with the physician in making the interests of the group primary in the speech situation.

Speaking in Boston, in 1852, Louis Kossuth wondered by what miracle the orators who had spoken in Faneuil Hall in Revolutionary times had wrought such success. "They were not wiser than the public spirit of their audience," he remarked, "but they were the eloquent interpreters of the people's enlightened instinct." This is one explanation of the cause of success which marked the Lincoln method of discerning the extent of sacrifice to which the people would submit. "A spontaneous outburst of popular sentiment tells often more in a single word than all the skill of elaborate eloquence could," declared Kossuth.

The Lincoln-Kossuth method lies close to that practised by the Greeks in the Golden Years. Indeed Æschines and Demosthenes, in the *Orations on the Crown,* grappled on the very issue raised by the physician. Had the latter lived with a prudent regard for the pre-eminence of the State? Was he a friend of the masses? Had he been governed in his acts by an affection for Hellas? Or had he lived to make Demosthenes comfortable?

Elatea had fallen! (declared Demosthenes, in a moment of defense) and twilight fell on Athens. At first the people were stunned by the report, and then a wild tumult broke out. Citizens hurried from their supper tables to the marketplace, where the traders were driven from their sheds. Fires were started. Some Athenians called for the trumpeter; others ran to the residences of the generals. The city spent a fitful night; but at dawn the citizens were astir, impatiently awaiting the opening of the assembly. The Senate filed in, the presidents made their reports, and then the courier proclaimed, "Who chooses to speak?"

All was silence. Not a word from the loyal but inarticulate laymen, nor from the wealthy Three Hundred, who knew no way of transmuting gold into eloquence; not a peep from the generous but hapless friends of Athens who had donated of their own possessions so freely for public needs. The plain fact was (Demosthenes continued) that these men all lacked the facility to say the words that would save Hellas her liberty, that would repel the Macedonian pounding at her gates. But what of Æschines? Why did not he speak up when Athens lay prostrate? He had the orator's voice. He had the command of words needed. Then, why his silence? "It is not the language of an orator, Æschines, that has any value, nor yet the tone of voice," thundered Demosthenes, in answer, "but adopting the same views with the people, and his hating and loving the same persons his country does."[1]

But impersonalism of this sort is not always justifiable. There is a point beyond which a speaker in a free society may not go in acquiescing to the *hates* and *loves* of the multitude. That point is reached whenever a speaker denies place and influence to himself as one capable in his own right of making a contribution to the cause at hand. Let him overstep this mark appreciably, and he evades his own obligations as an individual.

The shadows of a fading glory lengthened on the Acropolis when Athens lost her potent sense of objectivity. In its place flamed a passion for personal triumph, even as Æschines and Demosthenes had demonstrated in their lusty farewell to oratory. It was a passion kindled in part by the competition of national games, festivals, and a struggle for public office, when the theater and the bema became the stomping ground of calculating men, and the law courts a rendezvous for quibblers more intent on victory than on justice. Demagogues overrode the law, "by referring all things to the popular assembly," wrote Aristotle. Knowledge lost caste in Hellas, Gorgias going so far as to say that knowledge was nonexistent; that if it did exist, it could not be expressed; that if it were expressed, it could not be communicated. Commercialism in education flourished under the flabbiness of the personal principle, and went on to make a shambles of cause and effect relationships as criteria of community decisions. Style replaced context in the classroom, and the phonetic effort was exalted. The heroic figure in rhetoric was the man speaking, for as the ego of the craftsman expanded the personality of the group dwindled.

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[1] Incidentally, this statement is refutation of the legend that Demosthenes held *Action! Action!! Action!!!* as the tripod of rhetoric.

Aristophanes roared bitter laughter at this trend; and Plato raised objections, not so much because the development proved partial to the speaker, but because it denied to the thesis the place of priority in the trinity. This is the way of the dialectitian in discussion. With Plato, effective rhetoric was mathematical in conception, a piling up of fact on fact in accurate progression. It is to propose that all decisions bearing on the public welfare be made on a basis of logic and knowledge. An unimpeachable hypothesis, this. But there is a catch. *Whose* judgment is to authorize any collective decision? *Where* rests sovereignty among men? By *what* procedure is any group-decision reached?

Plato had a ready answer to all this. He set up a bureau of brains to do the thinking and to make the decisions for the regimented workers and warriors populating the *Republic*. Dialectics would be the *open sesame* to all mysteries. In such a community the rhetorician was unneeded, and Plato could afford to be condescending to Protagoras, and Lysias, and to create Callicles in the image of the gross hedonist. But granting free society a place to stand and air to breathe, will the way of a man with a syllogism best serve Pericles in the popular assembly, or Hypereides in court, or Luther at Worms, where human passions are part and parcel of the situation?

Aristotle gave the historic answer to the query. It was a thumping no, the only answer any believer in a self-sufficient order of men could possibly make, as Demosthenes and Lincoln affirmed in their words. He came to his decision the hard way: setting out in the faith of Plato, he sought to build his *Rhetoric* on objective principles; but as his treatise unfolded, he turned aside from the philosopher's closet to the bruising world of men, where knowledge is a dry crust unless energized by the impact of workaday events. He came to hold that *believability* lay not solely in the speaker as a man, nor in the audience as a group, nor in the objective facts as such; rather he held that *believability* lay in speaker, in hearer, and in thesis, mutually. The task of the speaker in a progressive society is to winnow the concepts needed for the occasion from the several sources of *believability,* and to process the parts into utterance.

Democratic orators have clung fiercely to the Aristotelian logistics of rhetoric. "Truth is not to be ascertained by the impulse of an individual," declared George Bancroft. Rather, he noted, *universal decision* is the democratic criterion to truth, and this decision arises in the pure reason of one who is able to look above the hurly-burly of factional strife and personal prejudices. The function of the orator is to find this decision in spite of a hubbub of distractions. Therein is he the artist, and to that extent he differs from the inarticulate citizen. So implied Bancroft in the vigorous years of American democracy which followed the Revolution. Cicero boasted, "The Consuls consulted the people in regular form." Mirabeau expressed the matter this way, " . . . that a discourse never proves anything by itself; that it draws all its character, all its force, from the preceding events, from the circumstances of the time, from the speakers—in a word, from the crowd of fugitive shades which must be determined before it is possible to appreciate it or to judge it." In Faneuil Hall, in 1826, Daniel Webster pronounced identical sentiments.

Some orators, in bringing speaker, and hearer, and context into relationship, filter events through the censorship of authority, some through their own single judgment, and some through the voice of the crowd. But all of them, regardless of method, speak for the welfare of men in the aggregate, and so are in agreement with the physician of the Empire who asked, "In what have you benefited the State?" *Never thrust into the balance the individual against the country,* was Mirabeau's way of putting the point. Aristotle, in his *Politics,* remarked, "The power of speech is intended to set forth the expedient and inexpedient, and therefore likewise the just and the unjust."[2]

The democratic orator walks a tricky wire through a crowd of contending forces and "fugitive shades," in giving emphasis to the constituents of the speaking situation. He dare not project either his own prejudices too far, or the group loves and hates, or the objective facts, lest the completed product lack symmetry and cohesion; for sovereignty, belonging to no single agent of the triad, as stated, but to all its components, in common, shuttles back and forth under the skilled hand until, rhetorically, "self and non-self" merge as one. Within the bounds of this understanding, *speech is free.* That is, the speaker is *free* to express himself. By the same token he is *free* to express the group, or the logic of events in historic perspective. But he is *not* free to express any single agent in isolation, or near-isolation, for fear of violating the democratic process in the trespass.

The *bias* of freedom exerted by the speaker is governed by community purpose; it is a fluid and ever-shifting bias geared to the events of the hour, and so more in keeping with the dynamism of Einstein, and Leibniz, than with the static postulates of Plato, and Euclid, and Descartes. In the stress of circumstance it swings sharply toward collective ends. In times of *laissez faire* it rushes madly toward individual prejudices, and it strikes a dead centre position only when the extremes neutralize one another. Thus do *sovereignty* and *freedom* approach reconciliation in a society that questions universals, and an eloquent anonymity comes to mark a well balanced utterance.

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[2] This point of view may be considered as a corollary to Aristotle's definition of rhetoric as a sheer persuasive faculty.

A LOGIC OF DISCUSSION METHOD

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ANY worth-while group discussion is in essence a process of controlled group thinking which attempts to arrive at sound judgments concerning a problem situation. Experimental studies show that once they are attained, these judgments tend to exert a definite and persistent influence upon the members of the discussion group.

Because of this fact, group judgments arising out of discussion are naturally utilized as guideposts to direct further speculation and subsequent action. Therefore, they must, if they are to have any value, be "valid" in the sense that they are capable of producing pragmatically fruitful attitudes and opinions. It is necessary that, among other things, they possess the qualities of pertinency and adequacy. That is, they must be pertinent to the facts around which future thinking proceeds, and they must be comprehensive enough to represent useful decisions in respect to those facts. If they lack either of these attributes, they cannot serve as valid way-signs to additional thought or action. In that case, discussion may be said to have failed.

It is generally agreed that the best way to insure the pertinency and adequacy of judgments is to control the thinking process by which they are created. Not only must the original "raw facts" upon which thinking is based be systematically investigated and classified, but the inferences drawn from the facts must be warranted.

The discipline which concerns itself with the problem of analyzing and categorizing data, and which studies the validity of inferences and judgments, is logic. Therefore, any attempt to establish a particular method of attack and procedure by which the judgments arising out of discussion may be guaranteed is, broadly speaking, an effort to discover and systematize a logic of discussion method.[1] The formulation of such a logic is essential to the production of sound group judgments. How it may be derived and organized, however, presents a complex problem.

This is true primarily because of the fact that group discussion is a unique thing. On the one hand, it is clearly far removed from the system of "confirmation" that employs with little modification the formal principles of Aristotelian demonstration. On the other, as will be shown below, it deviates in a number of respects from the highly controlled method of experimental investigation that characterizes the sciences, and therefore cannot employ wholeheartedly the system of logic that governs them.

In view of these facts, we are justified in asking what sort of logic controls the group thinking process. No one has as yet tried to answer this question, yet the characteristics which such a logic must possess may be determined in a general way from an examination of those peculiar aspects of discussion method that make it unique.

First of all, discussion brings together for mutual reflection an unwieldy—and very often a heterogeneous—group of human personalities. This introduces into the situation numerous unpredictable variables, and makes impossible the employment of those common types of control that regularly operate in most thinking situations.

Second, the length of time that any group has at its disposal is nearly always limited. Consequently, endless repetition of experimental procedure is out of the question. Likewise, exhaustive analysis of the problem is very often slighted.

Third, discussion groups are nearly always concerned with problems of a social, economic or aesthetic nature. This means that they deal with subject-matter which is inherently complex, full of unpredictable qualities, and characterized by an intangibility that makes accurate observation almost impossible.

Fourth, the facts employed in discussion are one step removed from their original nature. They are held in the minds of the members of the group, and are therefore bound to be colored to some degree by personal prejudices and conditioned by personal desires.

Fifth, it is impossible, because of the presence of various levels of intelligence in any group, to proceed through a discussion without leaving some intellectual stragglers in the wake of more gifted thinkers. This means that the various stages of the group's thinking process cannot be so clearly delimited and so definitely set apart that undivided attention may for any given period of time be centered upon one exclusively. There must be a constant weaving back to bring forward retarded members, and a corresponding marking of time on the part of those advancing at the head of the reflection.

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[1] The term "discussion method" is used throughout this article to refer to the structural program for group deliberation adopted by many authorities from John Dewey's outline of the five steps of reflective thinking and described by him as including: "(1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of solution; (4) development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; (5) further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection; that is, the conclusion of belief or disbelief." John Dewey, *How We Think* (Boston, 1910), p. 72.

Sixth, and perhaps most important of all, a good discussion does not slavishly adhere to a definite plan of procedure laid down in advance of the discussion period. Because of the fact that it starts with premises unformed and beliefs unsettled, any attempt to impose a preconceived structure would be futile unless one were willing to stifle creative deliberation for the sake of adherence to a form. In an ideal discussion—one in which there is no coercion in respect either to assumption or inference—the exact course that the thinking of the group will take cannot be foreseen. Instead, the pattern of thought is determined by the direction which the deliberation happens to follow. It depends to a great extent on the background, the education, and the ability of the group. Whether their analysis of the problem or their inferences from data are accurate is a relative matter to be determined, not by conformity to invariable rules but only by the pragmatic value of their conclusion.

From a consideration of these characteristics of the discussion process it should be clear that the logic which governs it cannot be dependent upon exact and categorizing definition. A group has neither the time nor the ability—very often not even the precise information—needed to formulate definitions based upon the separation of matter into *genus* and *differentia*. Moreover, many of the terms which it must define—say "democracy," or "fascism," or "social justice"—do not readily lend themselves to definition by such a system.

It should also be clear that inference in discussion cannot proceed according to hard and fast rules. Ideas must be expressed as they come to mind if the group is to profit by the individual thinking of each member. In addition, since inference must be made upon the structure of what very often proves to be imperfect definition, it is extremely difficult to test for causal validity.

The logic that governs the discussion process must, therefore, be broad, flexible, and general. It must be capable of securing some degree of pragmatic validity by progressing upon the basis of probabilities and approximations, rather than actualities. It must guide thought into channels that seem reasonable and not demand those that are certain.

Where is such a logic to be found? Because of the fact that discussion is not interested in the confirmation of preconceived propositions, it is obvious that the logic of discussion method cannot be very closely related to Aristotelian principles, for those principles are designed specifically and exclusively for the purpose of demonstrating prior premises. Rather, since discussion is a thinking, a discovering, an exploring process that is concerned with arriving at workable solutions to problems, it is apparent that the logic which governs discussion must attempt to guide and control reflective thinking.

Now the logic that concerns itself with the study and analysis of the reflective thinking process is the non-Aristotelian psycho-logic of the Pragmatist philosophers. The thinkers of this school are interested primarily in evolving a new and improved means of clarifying the elements of thought, and of establishing the truth or falseness of the conjectures which arise in reflection. Consequently, they have overthrown formal Aristotelian definition, charging not only that it often fails to "make ideas clear," but that upon many occasions it even fails to bring adequately into the understanding the raw facts with which creative reflection must work. In addition, they have maintained that, because of limitations imposed by the actualities of nature both in the physical and social realms, the rules and principles of the traditional logic cannot, as they claim to do, establish propositions that may be held to be true everywhere and forever.

In place of the formal rules governing categorical definition, they have substituted a new set of principles by which a definition is evaluated solely in terms of its usefulness, by which it admittedly becomes *ad hoc* rather than abstractly true or false, and by which it is purposefully framed to accord both with its own context and with its maker's intention. In the stead of the formal laws of Aristotelian inference, they have promulgated new rules of implication that derive their validity only from the pragmatic value of the conclusions which they bring forth.

By thus cutting through the rigid structuralism of the traditional logic, the Pragmatist logicians have not only brought that much abused discipline into close contact with the realities of the reflective thinking process as it actually operates in the resolution of problem situations, but they have, in fact, created a completely new "grammar of thought" which recognizes the vital connection that obtains between thinking and the world that it seeks to understand and control.

Now, since discussion is in essence a process of group reflection that attempts to put sound judgments at the service of intelligent belief and action, it is clear that the discussion method is much indebted to the general point of view of the Pragmatist logic and is greatly dependent upon its law and principles. Thus, in many instances, the method of group deliberation is, or should be, willing to substitute a practicable, workable definition of a concept for the exhaustive Aristotelian analysis of it. Likewise, it can have no violent objection to inference that is personal or even wishful, for it realizes that such inference is often inevitable in the discussion situation, and that errors which may be introduced as a consequence of it will be ironed out to some degree at least during that period in which the group tests its conclusions by empirical verification.

In view of these facts we may reasonably ask whether the logic of the Pragmatist philosophers cannot be adopted in its entirety and made to apply in guiding and controlling the processes of reflective group deliberation in the discussion situation. It must be admitted that at first glance there seems to be no good reason why an affirmative answer to this question is unwarranted. Upon reflection, however, it will become apparent that an unqualified acceptance of the logic of Pragmatism as the logic of discussion method is not possible. It is not possible because of the fact that the logic of Pragmatism is necessarily the logic of a highly accurate and carefully controlled type of reflection such as can obtain only in relation to certain kinds of subject-matter and under what are essentially "laboratory conditions." In order to claim any validity for its results, a logic that foregoes such basic essentials as accurate definition and impersonal inference must have much dependence upon the existence of numerous unalterable controls, an unrestricted repetition of experimental procedure, and a supremely accurate empirical means of verifying conclusions. Yet because of the restrictions placed upon discussion method by human variability, group differences, time limitations, etc., none of these requirements can be met in the group discussion situation.

This means that, in the final analysis, discussion method must be satisfied with a logic less stringent in its requirements concerning controls and verification, and capable of producing reasonably accurate results with fewer repetitions of experimental reflection than can the logic of the Pragmatist thinkers. In many instances, as we all know, discussion must simply "muddle through" the problem at hand, clinging in principle to the ideal of accurate scientific thinking, but unable to emulate its exactness and careful regulation of detail. Upon occasions such as these, even the most vociferous exponents of the Pragmatist psycho-logic would not, I am sure, care to vouch for the validity of the resultant judgments.

Therefore, in conclusion, it may be said that although the logic of discussion method can, indeed, learn much from the logic of Pragmatism, and from it borrow many general attitudes and principles, *it must in large measure evolve its own system and structure* through extensive observation of the various thinking situations that arise in the course of actual discussions. At the same time, it does not, however, seem unwarranted to suppose that such experience will, in large measure, consist primarily of bringing more clearly into the understanding of discussion experts the outstanding differences between the exact type of scientific thinking described and systematized by the Pragmatist logicians and the looser, less accurate type of experimental reflection characteristic of discussion method. Nor does it seem unreasonable further to suppose that once these differences are understood, there will be evolved through trial and error, a logic of discussion method, unique in principle and rule, but closely related to what seems to be its most immediate ancestor—the experimental psycho-logic of the Pragmatist philosophers.

A SURVEY OF MODERN PREACHING

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MODERN preachers struggle to induce people to attend church. People who do attend sometimes struggle to listen with interest to the sermon. Often preachers think the laity are not interested in the Christian message. Often the laity wonder whether preachers know life as others live it.

The purpose of this study is to survey this problem in modern preaching. First, some principles of effective preaching will be set forth based largely upon the pamphlet entitled: *What Is The Matter With Preaching?* by Harry Emerson Fosdick,[1] who is generally accepted as the outstanding American preacher of this generation. Later these principles will be applied to specimen sermons of 25 outstanding American preachers.

Referring to preaching, Fosdick says, "One obvious trouble with the mediocre sermon, even when harmless, is that it is uninteresting. It does not matter. It could as well be left unsaid." He adds that the mediocre sermon produces an effect of emptiness, because it establishes no real contact with the interests of the people. "The fault generally lies, not in the essential quality of the man's mind or character, but in his mistaken methods." Too often the mediocre sermon simply has no aim.

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[1] This pamphlet originally appeared as an article in *Harper's Magazine*, CLVII (July, 1928), 133-141.

In the first place, the only justifiable aim of a sermon is to help people solve their spiritual problems. "Every sermon should have for its main business the solving of some problem." Within a paragraph or two after the sermon has started, most of the congregation ought to begin recognizing that the preacher is tackling something of vital concern to them. A mistake of many ministers is that they indulge habitually in expository sermons and spend all their time talking about the Scripture or Biblical characters without ever making an application to the people who are listening. "What all the great writers of Scripture, however, were interested in was human living, and the modern preacher who honors them should start with that, should clearly visualize some real need, perplexity, sin, or desire in his auditors, and then should throw on the problem all the light he can find in the Scripture or anywhere else. . . . The Bible is a searchlight, not so much intended to be looked at as to be thrown upon a shadowed spot."

Secondly, an increasing number of preachers are dispensing with textual preaching in favor of the topical method because they think it is more modern; yet this method has dangers that are very real. Taking a topic from the evening newspaper or from the latest book does not in itself insure a good sermon. It is desirable to strive to be up-to-date and interesting, but a preacher must be careful not to put his ideas first and the needs of the people second. *The modern approach is to begin with the people.* Modern pedagogy starts not with the subject, but with the child; modern advertising starts not with the product, but with the needs of the people. So must the preacher, if he is to get results.

In the third place, the use of this method in preaching makes a sermon something more than a mere sermon; it makes of it a cooperative enterprise between the preacher and the people. This attitude of sharing convictions and of leading in cooperative thinking on the part of the preacher even affects his tone of delivery, and thus creates more of a willingness on the part of the congregation to listen. This is the type of preaching that best suits a democratic fellowship. This is also the method that will likely gain in ascendency during the years to come, for a person really never gets an idea until he has thought it through for himself. Any minister who can incorporate these principles into his preaching will find his sermons irenic, interesting, and constructively helpful; and still be without sensationalism. This type of preaching is like the project method in education.

Yet effective and helpful as this method can be, it too has dangerous pitfalls. First, in stating problems of the congregation, the minister must not become so personal as to reveal the perplexities of individual members. To do so would betray confidence and embarrass them. Secondly, in discussing a problem the minister must be sure to suggest a solution that is workable and helpful to the particular people who are listening. The mere discussion of a problem is not sufficient, for every person craves the satisfaction of carrying away with him something positive from a religious service. A sermon that discusses joy must do more than discuss it—it must *produce* joy! In this sense all effective preaching is creative—it creates the thing it advocates. This is the basic distinction between a sermon and an essay—the sermon does something to the people by producing in them a sense of victory over the problem discussed. An essay is chiefly the elucidation of a theme, whereas the sermon strives to transform personality.

Then too, the preacher must recognize the auditors as individuals; and if the sermon is to hit the mark, it must be directed toward individuals and establish contact with them. It must deal with the problems they face as individuals, and therefore the best test of any sermon is the number of people who interview the minister afterwards to discuss further the problem of the sermon as it applies to them individually.

Such is the viewpoint of Harry Emerson Fosdick on the minimum essentials of good preaching. He thinks, obviously, that the average minister is not meeting these minimum essentials.

The last principle to be considered is one set forth by Alexander V. G. Allen in 1901 as it applied to Phillips Brooks, and elaborated more in detail by Gilbert Stillman MacVaugh[2] in 1932 as it pertains to Fosdick himself, namely the position of the sermon climax. Brooks made no effort to follow the ancient law of climax. "On the contrary he often, perhaps generally, came to his climax as he began, . . . throwing his leading idea upon the canvas in bold outline, and then holding his audience . . . as with an artist's power he filled up the outline and made a living, speaking portrait." Likewise Fosdick constructs his sermons in such a way as to present the main idea first, while the attention of the congregation is fresh. This requires a rather lengthy introduction and an extended discussion of the first main idea, with less time spent on each successive idea, and with fewer and shorter illustrations. The summary is usually very brief. Thus in Fosdick's sermons, as in Brooks's, the intellectual climax comes at the beginning of the sermon, whereas the emotional climax comes usually near the end. This is the opposite of the traditional idea of preaching, which is to save the main idea for the intellectual climax at the close.

In discovering the extent to which outstanding preachers incorporate these four principles in their sermons, the following analysis was used:

- I. Type of sermon—textual, topical, expository.
    - A. Text.
    - B. Topic.
- II. Spiritual problem.
    - A. Solution.
- III. Evidence of cooperative enterprise.
- IV. Intellectual climax—first, last, loose.

Twenty-five sermons by 25 outstanding preachers were thus analyzed. All of them are American, all belong to our modern period, and many are contemporary. Their names and the sermons studied are as follows:

1. Beecher, Henry Ward—Immortality
2. Brooks, Phillips—The Man with One Talent
3. Brown, Charles Reynolds—The Sense of Hearing
4. Cadman, S. Parkes—Character and Work
5. Chappell, Clovis G—The Worried Face
6. Conwell, Russell H.—Above the Snake Line
7. Crane, Henry Hitt—Thermometers versus Thermostats
8. Day, Albert Edward—God's Open Secret
9. Fosdick, Harry Emerson—Handicapped Lives
10. Gilkey, Charles W.—Journeys Out and Home
11. Hough, Lynn Harold—Shining Stars of Expectation
12. Hughes, Edwin H.—For God's Sake
13. Jefferson, Charles E.—The New Commandment
14. Jordan, G. Ray—God's Great "If"
15. Luccock, Halford E.—A Gentleman's Agreement with Life
16. McConnell, Francis J.—Peter the Rock
17. Moody, Dwight L.—What Think Ye of Christ?
18. Palmer, Albert W.—The Art of Self Management
19. Peabody, Francis—The Power of the Endless Life
20. Rice, Merton S.—Ruins—but Roads
21. Sockman, Ralph W.—Treasures of Darkness
22. Stocking, Jay T.—Self-expression and Responsibility

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[2] Allen, *The Life and Letters of Phillips Brooks* (1901) II, 242-243; and MacVaugh, "A Structural Analysis of the Sermons of Dr. Harry Emerson Fosdick," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XVIII (1932), 531-546.

23. Sunday, William A. (Billy)—Food for a Hungry World
24. Tittle, Ernest Fremont—Things that Cannot Be Shaken
25. Truett, George W.—An Adequate Gospel

First, let us consider the type of sermons these men preached. Of the 25 sermons analyzed, 23 were textual and two were topical. None was expository. All of the textual sermons had stated texts, but two of them were not from the Bible. Luccock used one by George Bernard Shaw: "A gentleman is one who puts back into life a little more than he takes out." Rice used a line from a poem: "The walls are fallen, but the roads endure," and supplemented it with two Biblical texts. The two topical sermons were by Fosdick and Conwell; neither made any reference to a text. The 23 preachers who used texts used them in various ways. Beecher, Brooks, Chappell and others used the texts as points of departure. Crane used the text as the basic idea, but paraphrased it in his own words and never referred to the words of the Biblical text till the summary of the sermon. Some—as Gilkey, Jordan, and Tittle—partitioned the text and used it as the basis of the sermon outline. Moody's sermon is probably the one in which the text is used most as a recurrent theme, it being repeated time and again throughout the entire sermon. If these 25 sermons are typical,, then it is true that the outstanding modern preachers still rely heavily upon Biblical texts.. Only a few bold ones like Fosdick venture away from them.

Second, let us consider the problem-solving value of these sermons. All of them attempted to solve some spiritual problem. Naturally some of the problems were more vital than others; in fact some were not clearly stated but only implied. The topics discussed ranged all the way from individual handicaps, by Fosdick, to the feeding of a hungry world, by Billy Sunday. The solutions centered always in the spirit, if not in the words, of the Christian faith. Invariably there was presented a solution to the problem discussed, although in several instances it was subtle and vague. Sometimes the solution would furnish the outline for the sermon as Brown's did in suggesting we listen to the Voice from within, from without, and from above. Other solutions were suggestive, as Conwell's in recommending the living of life above the snake line. Chappell ushered in his solution as the final idea while Crane presented a choice, saying each person could resemble a thermometer or a thermostat and be a conformer or a transformer. A few of the solutions were anemic, but by far the most of them were pungent and real. All gave the reader some definite contribution to carry away with him in the form of spiritual satisfaction. Generally speaking, the adaptation of the problem to the people was well done, although for many of the sermons there was no way of knowing exactly where they were preached, to what kind of an audience, or even the exact year.

Third, let us consider the evidence of cooperative enterprise. It varied greatly in technique and amount. Of course only the printed page was used for this survey—the touch of the personality of the preacher with all his potential charm in manner and voice was not available. Therefore the evidence based upon the style and content must suffice for our judgment of cooperative thinking between the preacher and the people.

Various techniques in style were employed to develop the attitude of cooperation with the congregation. One common method was a varied use of the first, second, aand third persons. The first person, singular and plural, was used considerably, but not so much as the third. There was a noticeable lack of the use of the second person, no preacher using it to any great extent. It seems the use of the first person does help in making of the sermon a cooperative enterprise, whereas the third person gives it a ring of finality and—when the subject is controversial—of dogmatism. Another aid in the development of rapport is a clear outline. The clearly outlined sermons, as Palmer's, were much easier to follow in meaning than were those that were jumbled and vague—of which there were a few. Indeed, it might be said that those sermons with discernible skeletons were more commanding in interest and attention than those that were progressively vague, for interest and attention are mandatory as prerequisites to cooperative thinking. Poignant illustrations also make it easy for a person to get an idea for himself, as does humor when used intelligently—and creditably enough, surprisingly few of the sermons had any semblance of humor whatsoever, and none relied on it for emphasis. Figures of speech, rhetorical questions, and the use of a varied style in general, were all instrumental in securing and maintaining the spirit and form of finding cooperatively the solutions to mutual problems.

However, real cooperation in thinking is the thing Fosdick advocated. This quality is difficult to fingerprint, nevertheless certain clues come from the techniques mentioned above and other evidence is obtained from the content material itself. The latter is revealed by the way in which the preacher deals with opposing viewpoints and the fairness with which he combats them. In this regard Moody did the most magnificent work of any preacher studied. He used for a text, "What think ye of Christ?" The first part of the sermon dealt with the things Christ's enemies said about him—which Moody proved to be complimentary in every case—then with the statements of His friends, which also enhanced His reputation. Finally Moody put the question directly to the people asking, "What think ye of Christ?" Other preachers were suggestive, making their ideas contagious and stimulating to further thought; this was accomplished by proper arrangement and style of the content material, and by the use of apt illustrations. Fosdick, McConnell, Peabody and Stocking were especially effective in this regard.

According to these standards 19 of the sermons were cooperative enterprises while six were largely dogmatic. Moody's sermon was a masterpiece of cooperative thinking and Billy Sunday's was one of the most authoritative. Also, the subject selected had considerable to do with its reception. It had to reveal a conscious or unconscious problem before the reader wanted to cooperate in finding a mutual solution. Aside from techniques, attitudes, and treatment of content material, it can be said that the greatest guarantee of making a sermon a cooperative enterprise is for the preacher to choose a subject so vital to the people that they will feel the need of helping him find a solution to their common problem.

Finally, consider the position of the intellectual climax. Only six sermons had their main ideas first, that is, immediately following the introduction: namely, those of Cadman, Crane, Fosdick, McConnell, Rice, and Stocking. Seven followed the traditional plan of saving the main idea until the end and thus making it the intellectual climax at the close. The other twelve were sermons in which it seemed one idea was just as important as the others, or that there was no particular sequence of ideas at all. These were classified as having a "loose" organization, being named after the pattern used by Henry Ward Beecher. Splendid examples of this loose organization were found in the sermons by Conwell and Beecher himself; each drove home his thesis by using illustration after illustration. All the sermons, without exception, had their emotional climaxes near the end.

In conclusion, it can be said that the sermons evaluated have vital messages, and that these messages are clothed in beauty that makes them works of art. The sermons deal with real problems of the people, and the preachers employ the one main requisite set forth by Fosdick: namely, that a sermon should help people solve some problem that is burdening their consciences or distressing their minds. Yet in doing this they have not departed much from the use of Biblical texts, nor have all learned the technique and value of cooperatively thinking through a problem together with the people for its solution. Of course, each preacher must meet the needs of his own parishioners at each particular time and place, and in the way he can best do it as an individual; for there is no evidence of uniform training, technical skill, or ability. Each one has his own unique method of presentation and uses it effectively; and this, perhaps, is one reason each is outstanding; but the main reason is that each is able to present satisfactory solutions to the spiritual problems of the people.

AMATEUR SHOW TONIGHT—PLACE, BROADWAY

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Edgewater, New Jersey

I

IT IS eight thirty-five and we are strolling up to a building just east of Broadway. We're in no hurry, for we are going to the theatre and the curtain is announced for eight-thirty, so we have a good ten minutes leeway. Quite a crowd is moving with us which at first glance looks most promising, but soon the practiced eye recognizes signs of a paper house, too many youngsters, too Broadway—the show is on uncertain ground. What is euphemistically called the lobby, a smallish vestibule, is full. To one side is the box office and behind the wicket a sad faced woman presides in an offhand manner. The ticket taker is even more forbidding. He seems to ask: Why do you bother me with this nonsense? With the country fighting a war, perhaps it all seems futile to these two. But no, we've had the same reception for 30 years. They just do not like theatre business, that's all. We go in and are met with disapproval by an usher who mumbles something in her teeth and waves vaguely towards an aisle. The aisle is at least enthusiastically served, for the usher is way down at the other end and far too busy to see us. When we do catch her, she waves us to our seats and forgets the programs. So we edge through to the designated spot, bruising thigh and calf as we do so. The house lights go down and the footlights come up as we are simultaneously squeezing into the seats and trying to get the forgotten programs. The play is about to begin.

The curtain goes up—that marvelous moment in the theatre when all the wonder of a world outside our own is to be revealed to us, that moment when we are to gain a bit of promised experience which most of us will only get vicariously.

It is a tremendous responsibility, this bringing to all and sundry some craved excitement, some glamour, some unexpected joy, that theatre people undertake. For 3,000 years they have been doing it; for 3,000 years we have eagerly gone to see them undertake the task; for 3,000 years they have been building for this moment. When that curtain goes up, we are going to see the accumulated knowledge and training that 3,000 years have brought to the workers of this miracle. For it must be a miracle; we must bring to it all that faith, that credulity that can make a miracle. To lift, momentarily, from our shoulders all the griefs and problems of our daily lives we must enter into make-believe, the mood where miracles can occur. We are doing our part: have we not braved that morgue without, with its attendant mutes, are we not sitting in these penitential seats, are we not still braving that spiritual inheritance which whispers the danger of seeking a bit of escape, a bit of heaven here below? Yes, we of the audience are willing. We have been faithful for 3,000 years, and, by and large, we have been fairly lavish in payment for this bit of joy.

So, as the curtain goes up we sit—I was about to say back, but the seats won't permit that—sit up in anticipation of what is before us. We are about to see a "professional production."

II

What does professional mean to us? The dictionary tells us that a profession is a vocation that requires a learned education, that a professional is one that makes his living by the art attained by that learned education. But we have come to expect somewhat more of the word—we have come to expect skill in the application of that learning. A professional is one whose study of an art assures his skill in its execution. So we expect knowledge and skill in all that appears before us when the curtain is up. Sitting in these seats, expectant, let us be, for the moment, reincarnated. We are now those professionals who are about to create that by which we have earned a spasmodic living for 3,000 years. The curtain is going up and we are ready. Or are we ready? Let's take stock of our learning, our skill. There are perhaps ninety of us involved in the production. There are, too, the owners of the theatre, the architects and builders of it, the many men who have equipped it. They are professionals too. And we can assume that the owner is a man who has studied the theatre problem before deciding to build. He realizes that the use of his building depends on the audience and has placed it in such a position that it is easily reached by those that desire to come—not under any compulsion to come. It is in a clear, open site, with comfortable transportation to and from it. There is ample parking room for those with tires, gas, and temerity. The very neighborhood has a "lift," a quality of release. The architect? The architect is a man of experience, of training, and when he graduated thirty years ago he had vision. There are welcoming lobbies that give a sense of well being, a spacious, comfortable auditorium and uncluttered space behind the proscenium that is needed to justify all that expenditure out in front. As I said, we can assume all this. Or have I gone astray somewhere? It does sound more like a movie theatre than the typical Broadway playhouse. No matter, we who are back of the curtain live on assumptions.

There are two producers, experienced men. That is, they have been about Broadway for two or three years—know where the Astor is, and believe the check girl at Sardi's recognizes them. Besides, they have $5,000 and know where they can get more. A potential $8,000 is assurance of competence these days. Their very daring in undertaking a production is easily mistaken for skill. They—these two producers—have a play, and it has two authors. They are admittedly not so experienced, for they have no money. But one is well qualified. He has been in the game for years. Worked up in the last two years to be assistant to a movie agent. The years he has spent piling blue-bound manuscripts on desks means that he knows a play when he sees one. The other author had the idea, a good one, for it is a new twist on a sure idea—one that was a great success last season, though twenty managers had passed it up. There could be no mistake this time, and so they wrote the play. If it had any failings, they are easily fixed, for everyone that has ever crossed Forty-fifth Street knows how to improve a play that someone else has written. The designers—the scene designer and the costume designer—are set. They are friends of Joe's who says he thinks they did something out in Kansas. It isn't too important because the producers know all about designing, and what they overlook the cast will put right at dress rehearsal. Now for a director. A good director is vital. Everything should hinge on his knowledge and ability. A miracle worker is preferred. Someone who can make a brilliant play out of any sort of script, make great actors out of hacks, mold new sets and uncouth lighting into a perfect whole. He had better be good, for if there is any failure on any of these points, 89 people are going to blame him. So the producers, out of their experience and with the help of fourteen hangers-on from the Square, pick the director.

Then comes casting. For this, tradition demands actors—a point that the director hopefully brings to the attention of the producers. That they are professionals is assured by Actor's Equity. To protect the public—and give confidence of the actor's skill, Equity sets up two major safeguards. First, that someone desires a future actor sufficiently to offer him a job, and second, that the future actor or someone has the initiation fee.

Assured of professional ability by these precautions, the director and producers set to work. Certain standards are set up. First, in the case of *leads*—their popularity expressed in box-office returns is estimated. Next, their suitability to the part is judged by the producers' wives or lady friends. Then their cost is balanced against the budget. This is a flexible arrangement, within limits. There is a minimum wage for actors below which the producers cannot go. This averages weekly to what a good artisan gets daily. Salaries above this minimum are computed in relation to ability (i.e. the actor's highest previous salary). Hence, in making the actors' budget, the more the leads get within a fixed budget, the less is left for the support, and the poorer the supposed abilities of the supporting players. In the theatre we have the unusual physical law that the heavier the money value of the top, the weaker the support for that top.

From what I have just said, it would seem that the standards mentioned must be relaxed in the case of the supporting actors. That, to the honor of the profession, is not the case. Standards are changed somewhat, but if anything are made more severe. First, do the supporting actors look, dress, and eat like the characters they are supposed to represent? This is judged by their appearance in daily life and no thought is given to any deception that the actor might accomplish on the stage. Second, has any other manager had the courage to use them in like capacity? Third, has the agent, who secures the cast, personally seen them in this capacity? Fourth, and by no means least, does the office secretary approve of the actor and agree that the actor fulfills all demands. If the support can pass all these hunches and will accept the remuneration, they are tested for five days. The five days give time to check up on type, measure their ability against the leads, and see how well they can imitate the director. If the leads are willing to take a chance that they, the leads, can top any individual performance, if the director's and the management's conclusions as to type hold (which they occasionally do) and if the actor is a good enough mimic, he is assured of five more weeks of work and of two weeks' pay.

There remain only the hired hands—set builders and painters, costume and drapery makers and the stage crews. These are the frequently unnoticed but very essential factors in the performance. These groups are all union workers, and the unions demand, varyingly, an initiation fee ten times as great as an actor's, a rigid examination as to knowledge of the work, and that there be a definite demand for the services of new members. In the main, this is a truly skillful group, with the set builders being the most skillful of the lot. Strangely enough, though the skill of this group is accepted by the management without question, it is here that there is the greatest argument about costs.

So our company is recruited and duly rehearsed for that daring undertaking, a play. We are the people who are going to supply that waiting audience with that release, that excursion into make-believe—that audience who is waiting for the curtain to go up in the assurance that it is going to see the culmination of 3,000 years of professionalism.

In what is undoubtedly still one of the most potent theatrical centers of the world we have this strange situation, a situation that was in force when a commercial theatre came into being after the revolution against foreign rule and that finds little change today. The mechanics of the theatre have changed and improved, but acting and direction in the professional theatre are what they were a hundred years ago. Appearance is very different, for in a hundred years there has been a marked change in manners, dress, speech, form of language and writing, interests, and viewpoints. But, adjusting our thoughts to these changes, we see that acting and directing have not kept pace with other advances. Even war has advanced, in destructive force. But there is some possibility that acting—allowing for the great technical advantages that today's actor has in production as compared to the theatre of yesterday—has lost in quality through the years. And from this fact I take my thesis.

III

The production of plays on Broadway is not done by a profession; for say what we will, there is advancement and accomplishment by those who are learned in a profession and who honestly and seriously pursue it. Acting on Broadway is done only by professionals in the narrow sense that many of the participants earn a living of sorts by doing it. Producers, directors, actors, and designers are doing that heart-rending job known as producing theatre, not because they are professionals but because they are true amateurs. It is the pride of the amateur that he is confined by tradition and example. Until recently, these amateurs of the theatre were what the "profession" called troupers. It used to be a flattering term. A trouper was one who had acquired the art of acting solely by doing; according to Boucicault, "Everything learned in a room is devoid of practical value." And to have attained eminence by this method was the ambition of every actor. Everything that hinted at mental training was taboo. Education in any event was a weakness; the pragmatic philosophy of much of the last century ruled supreme.

Coupled with this viewpoint, however, were two stubborn, if almost hidden, impulses. One was the peculiar, inexplicable love of an art, which, for want of a better name, we call the creative impulse. Nothing but the almost unreasoning impulse of the true amateur would have carried actors through all the stupidities and vagueness of their art. The other is a sort of inferiority complex—historical—that caused the actor to arrogate to his art the title of profession, that symbol of study and education which even today he endeavors, out of respect to the actor's tradition, to conceal. Studying the recorded biographies of 520 native actors of today, I find that less than 70 admit to any formal training in a school devoted to theatre, that 50 admit to "studying," usually with a name actor or actress, and that the remaining 400 claim to have arrived at their knowledge by sheer genius and the grace of God, coupled with "stock" experience, the trouper's method. I am able to bring the school-trained group up to 70 by transferring to that column many that I know to be so trained, though they carefully conceal that fact in the biographies. Many teachers of drama know that to be true. How many times have teachers seen that grueling spell when they have labored over a promising student later referred to in a news interview as "experience in stock." That is so well established in this country that of the 87 English actors who have more or less permanently settled here and whose biographies I have studied, only 11 admitted to school training—a percentage that is the same as that for native actors. At the same time, among the English actors who have remained at home, proportionately four times as many claim dramatic school training. In truth, for many years, those actors who sought employment in the Broadway theatre had good reason to conceal training. It was as much as their job was worth to admit having been near a college. The producer of 25 years ago either could not stand the sight of a college man, or would not risk the competition. And the producer would laugh if anyone suggested that in France (I am speaking of yesterday) the presence of "Academie Française" after an actor's name had money value. The tradition of a great uneducated profession still lingers in this country to this day, borne along by a fervent amateurism. The Broadway Theatre today is still largely and militantly amateur.

Well, what of it, what's wrong with that? Broadway asks. To which we might well answer: If you are satisfied, we are. But are we, and are they? I doubt it. Statistics are no fun, and these certainly are not funny.

In 1911 there were 215 productions on Broadway, and Burns Mantle felt that the season was somewhat disappointing. But there were signs of good times to come, with young and energetic producers coming to the fore. By 1936, says Mr. Mantle, the American Theatre should lead the world. And it would seem so, for in 1922-23 there were 198 productions, 78 of which were among the outstanding dramatic productions of recent times. I need only mention *Morn to Midnight, The Old Soak, The Torch Bearers, The Awful Truth, East of Suez, Rose Bernd, Loyalties, R.U.R., The Fool, The World We Live In, Seventh Heaven, Six Characters in Search of an Author, Rain, Merton of the Movies, The Romantic Age,* Barrymore's *Hamlet, The Texas*

Nightingale, The God of Vengeance, Warfield's *Merchant of Venice, The Tidings Brought to Mary,* Ethel Barrymore's *Romeo and Juliet,* and Jane Cowl's *Will Shakespeare, The Lower Depths, The Cherry Orchard, The Three Sisters, Peer Gynt, Mary the Third, Ice Bound, You and I, King Lear, The Adding Machine, As You Like It, The Devil's Disciple, The Inspector General, The Rivals, Aren't We All, Sun Up, The School for Scandal, It's the Law,* and *The Comedie Française.*

And at that I have almost neglected to mention such popular favorites as *Whispering Wires, The Monster, So This Is London, The Last Warning, Why Not?, Polly Preferred, A Square Peg, The Enchanted Cottage, If Winter Comes, Sweet Nell of Old Drury, The Clinging Vine, The Gingham Girl, Little Nellie Kelly; Sally Irene and Mary; Up She Goes,* and some less successful but distinguished productions such as *Shore Leave, La Tendresse, Malvoloca, Fashions for Men, Johannes Kreisler, The Lady Christilinda, Jitta's Atonement, Mister Malatesta, Humoresque, Roger Bloomer, Pasteur, Zander the Great, Anathema,* and the one acts: *The Rut,* Boccaccio's *Untold Tale, The Trysting Place, None Are So Blind, The Man Who Married a Dumb Wife, The Little Stone House, The Will O' the Wisp, Torches, Pot Boiler, Three Pills in a Bottle, Another Way Out, The Monkey's Paw.* We did not consider that season too exceptional at the time. Though 60 theatres were running simultaneously on Broadway that winter, the whole season was in the nature of a decline. Actually there was some rise in sight, for in 1927 there were 80 theatres running, though without by any means so distinguished contents. Quantity was characteristic of the country just before the Depression.

Now to the year that was to establish America's pre-eminence in the theatre. At that, we may have led the world that year, but what a spavined job. In 1936, the trend was shown with 89 new plays and 13 revivals. In the 45 theatres that were running were to be found some important plays, among them *Dead End, Victoria Regina, Idiot's Delight, High Tor, Stage Door, Richard Second, Excursion, Tonight at Eight-Thirty, Wingless Victory,* and *The Masque of Kings.* There were the popular successes: *Three Men on a Horse, Boy Meets Girl,* and *Mulatto;* and the more interesting if somewhat less successful *Johnny Johnson, Night Must Fall, St. Helena, Storm Over Patsy,* Gielgud's and Howard's *Hamlets, Two Hundred Were Chosen, Aged Twenty-Six, Daughters of Atreus,* and *Plumes in the Dust.* A good record, but though there is always qualitative disagreement, none can deny the marked quantitative drop.

We have only to look at the theatre today, however, to realize the wonders of that season: 24 theatres with a low average of open nights and no play that the critics will mention written in this country, one English play given a citation. That's why we are not satisfied; that's what's wrong with it, that amateur approach in the Broadway theatre. Such a record is not one of professional accomplishment. No wonder some of the best of our troupers want to get away from Broadway. They are beginning to be ashamed to admit they belong to that theatre, and hope that elsewhere the stigma will not be recognized. In its heart, Broadway knows it should be professional, that behind its lightest moment, its gayest jest as well as its most moving expression, there should be more than a trouper's training, there should be a learned education which we might call a profession with honesty.

IV

But Broadway is lazy—not physically lazy, let me hasten to add. The honest actor will work for hours over his walk, posture, make-up. He will give up sleep, food; he will repeat lines over and over. There is no end to the physical and mechanical effort he will make to succeed in a part. Beyond that he does not go. He is mentally lazy. He won't think. He won't burden his mind with true and original study. The actor on Broadway reasons only from example and tradition. As a matter of fact, he has gone to endless lengths to prove that an actor does not need an education. Look, he says, at Booth, Barrett, Forrest, Jefferson, and many others. None of them had an education, and they were great actors. Yes, we are inclined to say, and look at you. In fairness, let's look at his examples. Booth not only had an education, but he had the careful training that his father gave him after Junius Brutus was convinced that Edwin was going to be an actor. Booth, though our greatest actor at the time, was limited in his rôles and not without faults of interpretation. Barrett was not a good actor, and never claimed to be. He was a good trouper. Forrest was perhaps our greatest actor, and above all an intellectual one. True, he had little or no schooling, and he began acting at sixteen or even fourteen years of age. But he was an indefatigable worker and student. Among other matters, he studied that most despised of theatrical arts, elocution and voice management. "The world thinks," he said, "that my voice is God given. Not at all. It's the product of culture, of practice. When I went on the stage I got Dr. Rush's book[1] and I studied it, and when I didn't understand anything I went to Dr. Rush and got him to explain it. Then I practiced. That's the way I came by my voice." All he did was done with the same care and trouble, with study and previously prepared effort. Jefferson, though with only a small amount of formal education, was the third in line of a family of actors, and was well-schooled. He was, even in the opinion of his greatest admirers, never more than a popular part actor.

If any general conclusion can be drawn from a few special cases, it would be in favor of study. With the exception of genius, brawn, even well applied, cannot take the place of educated brains. Not that it is to be supposed that long years of drudgery are needed for study. To one with a natural aptitude, such preliminary training comes quickly, even two years intelligently applied can work wonders. It is a habit of thought that must be inculcated, not a schooled routine. On the other hand, I fear that, lacking natural ability and aptitude, no amount of training would be of much avail. We hear a great deal of experience as the basis of training. Experience is a dangerous thing. In acting, it can be very dangerous. As you know, some of the worst actors have had the most experience—we call them *hams*. Without an intelligent basis on which to build, experience is as likely to build ineradicable errors as it is to confirm virtues. Training and intelligence, coupled with native ability, are the recommendations for an artist; experience is the recommendation for a workman. The actors of our theatre today are 77 per cent experienced, 23 per cent trained. To pursue the logic, three-quarters of our actors are workmen, one quarter are artists. And we leave our work, rush through our dinners, crowd into conveyances or hunt for parking places, jam through lobbies, squeeze into uncomfortable seats and wait for the curtain to go up on that glamorous world of make-believe, of release, only to see workmen in their workaday efforts. No wonder that when there is one bit of artistry, one bit of truth or one bit of revelation, we make extraordinary efforts to see it, and that bit must say on exhibition until all have had an opportunity to admire such an unusual performance. We, the people, do love the theatre, love it with a persistence that has been but ill repaid over the years.

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[1] [Cf. the article "James Rush, Dramatist," by Gray and Hale, QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, February, 1943, pp. 55-61.—ED.]

V

In a way, this shabby state of affairs is not wholly the fault of the profession. It is more the fault of a way of life, our way of life, which gave rise to a peculiar tradition. That tradition hangs over every educational effort in this country. It has made the country great, but it ties us. Every family line in the United States, whenever started, has been started by nonconformists and dissenters. The basic philosophy and the basic psychology of the dissenter has remained strongly intrenched in the national mores. As individuals, we will undertake and accomplish anything. As individuals there is no limit to our daring, our strength. We work well with individuals who have about the same opinions that we hold. As long as we see no divergence, as long as there is no manner of doubt, we give our peers full share. But if there is a hint of difference of opinion, we are on the alert. We know instinctively the strength of the dissenter, for are we not ourselves dissenting? And what freedom is to us, to our gain, can well be freedom eventually to the dissenter, to our loss. There is no one less tolerant of dissent than is the dissenter.

Education, of which we approve in general, can thus be dangerous in the particular, for education nourishes the trained mind, and the trained mind is ever turning up new avenues of thought, new freedoms. By an inexorable law, each new freedom, each new discovery lessens the value of those from which it parted. So, while we insist on college training, we fear it. That which we fear, we affect to despise, to ridicule. College trained ourselves, we dread the newly trained. Perhaps, having fled leaders, we dread leaders. In the countries from which our forebears fled, conformity is the rule, leadership is tolerated and even admired.

Our acting tradition was likewise started by dissenters, nonconformists. Soon after the Revolution, the acting infiltration from England began, with George Frederick Cooke in the van. From those that were unhappy abroad, or cramped by established competitors or systems, an acting stock grew up here. And soon a native actor appeared, with the typically American spirit. When MacReady was here, early in the nineteenth century, he was rehearsing *Hamlet* with a man who, in playing Guildenstern, continually pressed too near to him. At length he came so close that MacReady said, "What, sir, you would not shake hands with Hamlet, would you?" "I don't know," said the other, "I do with my own president." The American actor's pattern was established a century ago and flourished exceedingly, with a few notable exceptions, until this century. During the last years of the last century, the intuitive, experienced system was at its greatest. The art of acting began to get a bad name, it was all ham and the profession knew it. A reaction set in, which began to be noticed by 1905. Gordon Craig fired the most vicious first round at the old system when he proposed to replace living actors with life-sized marionettes. Acting intelligence had gained so little ground, acting brawn was so all important that Craig was justified in his assumption that action was all that was needed to make theatre at the time.

Read the plays of the period and see how right he was. The playwright always reflects the capacities of his times.

When the reaction came, it was led by unprofessional amateurs of the theatre —men with somewhat less experience but more thought in theatre expression, such as Thomas Wood Stevens, Sam Hume, Maurice Browne, and George Pierce Baker. Soon the true but professional amateurs joined in, inspired as much from France and Ireland as from anything so dangerous as native dissenters. The First World War hardly served to halt the movement, and after the war it gushed forth in a steadily increasing torrent. Groups were perhaps arty at first. Why not accept the term, which is a good one, if it does somewhat humorously confirm the thesis I have advanced of our normal, native psychology. But the groups soon grew in strength and numbers. University departments, following the tentative lead taken by Harvard and the strong example of Carnegie Tech, began to be established, somewhat gingerly at first. They are still continuing to be established, with more confidence. Existing, as I have explained, as social pariahs, the university departments have clung closely to the conformist attitude. But they have made the most encouraging start in developing a Theatre Education. The groups, subjected to the same influence, but disguising it to themselves as an economic matter, have followed what they fondly imagined was the Broadway Pattern, but they, luckily, have been unable to subdue a fresh mental alertness that comes from inexperience. That this is true is evidenced by the attitude of the profession. The profession laughs nervously, and from May to September the profession embraces the little theatre with a suffocating affection. If the strong group theatres will cling to their present paths, improving and strengthening at each step, giving up at the same time any hankering for the flesh pots (always empty) of Broadway, the profession may well be frightened, for the day will come when it is said, "Oh, he's just a Broadway actor."

VI

The curtain is going up, and we are in our seats, members of that audience again. We know nothing of professional difficulties back stage, and we are hopeful that somehow we will see a good show. H-m-m, a poor set, but the acting may overcome that. The opening business is trite. But a little interest stirs as the action proceeds. If the lightly sketched caricatures on the stage would only resolve themselves into people, perhaps we could get absorbed in what is going on. A fair wisecrack or two, but we are now convinced that the cast has no faith or conviction about the play they are in.

Another flop is added to the list. And on the following Sunday Mr. Brooks Atkinson says that this is the worst season in at least twenty years. His rating is undoubtedly right for the Broadway season, the only one he is officially qualified to discuss. Atkinson seems to think that world conditions are to blame in part for the present low ebb in the Broadway theatre. That in times such as these playwrights fail us. I doubt we can so readily blame the playwright or the war. Great playwriting has existed in other wars, and will again. It is the playing that is at fault. All except the most honest of playwrights write down to their actors, more particularly those that keep in close touch with Broadway. And the producers, who are the buyers of plays, hear them through Broadway's din, and see them through Hollywood's sun glasses. If, as happens occasionally, an honest play does get on Broadway, and the author demands the expression of ideas from the actor, he will be let down. The actor cannot speak such lines, the director does not know how to hold the stage for such sequences; and so the critics, and soon the audience, say the play is slow and talky. It is so long since a critic has heard anything intelligently said on the stage that he has forgotten it is ever done. In the 20 years that Broadway has been striding downward, throughout the country there has been a twenty-fold increase in established theatre groups. Yes, I know that person after person has told us that these groups don't measure up, that they are not sincere, that they are not experimental enough, and so on. I have always wondered by what standard these groups were being measured. Not the Broadway theatre, I hope. Not the European state supported theatre of yesterday. No. They are measuring against an ideal carried in their heads—nonrealists, all of them. Group after group in communities and universities of this country are better, on the whole, than any but an extraordinary Broadway fluke. Many others are nearly as good—and at that, on a thousandth the cost.

Five years ago I was discouraged at the state of what *Theatre Arts* calls the "Tributary Theatre." Frankly, I had fallen into the error of which I have just accused the commentators—of nonrealistically setting up an ideal. Not that there should be no ideal. Far from it. An ideal for the theatre is needed, and if no one else has it, we, along with the commentators, must. I could enlarge upon the ideal theatre here and now, but I well know that at the mention of the phrase a pattern has leaped into the mind of each of you that is as valid as any that I might outline to you. I do hope that the ideal theatre of each of you will have a brilliantly trained staff in every department, unstinted production space, and casts that are intelligent and intelligible from top to bottom and first to last.

But, while working towards such an ideal, we must not be discouraged with the progress made. As a matter of fact, each time I go to the theatre in New York and see another Broadway production, I am correspondingly encouraged about what goes on in the rest of the theatre. Johnny Theatreseed has gone through the country and where he has passed, hardy seedlings have sprouted, even in the shade of the groves of Academe. It is too soon for them to bear the fruit of our dreams, but there are many blossoms.

Our labors are not over, and no longer can they be personal. When we have helped to remake a world in which we can again work with freedom and joy, then we must set about a marriage (it may have to be a shotgun marriage) and we may not have to do all the proposing at that. For the theatre which is trained and the theatre which is experienced must be united. That theatre which we are all laboring mightily to bring about, that theatre which is a profession, can well use some of the blood of the amateur theatre we call Broadway, and the Broadway theatre badly needs the strengthening blood that the new profession will bring to it. In fact, it needs a transfusion right now. We have a war to fight, but that will absorb not more than a decade, and then we can set about remaking our own world of theatre. It is but a brief interruption in the long history of theatre and with luck we may be there to round out the 3,000 years with curtain going up—not amateur show tonight, but—show tonight—place, the U.S.A.

MEYERHOLD AND CONSTRUCTIVISM IN THE RUSSIAN THEATRE

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> The history of the theatre during the Russian Revolution presents the extraordinary spectacle of an art renouncing itself as art, plunging into the thick of actuality and taking its place side by side with war, politics, and industry—to emerge finally as a thing metamorphosed and completely re-born, which climbed again to the aesthetic plane of ideal existence and contemplative realization.[1]

THE concept known as Constructivism was recognized during this renaissance of Russian theatre. The origin, development, climax, and decline of this trend might be figuratively and properly compared to a beacon light in that its growth was gradual, but normal under existing conditions, its "pure" appearance brief, and its influence felt after it flashed by. This phenomenon is best exemplified by the career of Vsevolod Emilivich Meyerhold, the theatre director famous for his originality even before the Revolution, and who became after the Revolution the acknowledged leader of the Soviet theatre and the force behind most of its achievements. To understand the background out of which Constructivism grew, then, is to trace the development of this genius. This can be more easily shown if his work is arbitrarily divided into five periods, the fourth dealing with Constructivism specifically.

Meyerhold (1873-) had his early training with Stanislavski in the Moscow Art Theatre from 1898 to 1905. Even during this first, his training period, he disagreed with the utter-realistic doctrine of the Stanislavski school, but since that director thought that both he and Meyerhold were seeking the same thing in different ways, he turned one of the Art Studios over to Meyerhold in 1902 hoping that he might find a conventionized expression for the "new symbolic plays" then being written. It was soon obvious, however, that they were not seeking the same ends, and Meyerhold left the Art Theatre in 1905.

His next period might be called that of "stylization." He began his career in St. Petersburg in the theatre of Vera Kommissarshevskaia. His early productions pleased this actress because he still relied heavily upon his early training, but when he began stylizing her production, naturally she released him.

> He tried to confine the actors in his productions to primitive picturesque movements and artificial intonations, making the acting subsidiary to the setting, and merely fitting the actors into the static picturesque decor.[2]

He then went to the Imperial Theatres, and here he met Alexander Golovin, the scenic designer, and together they were a sensation in their stylized treatment of plays. They went then to the Marinsky Theatre and to the Imperial dramatic, the Alexandrinski Theatre. At this time he claimed that he was reverting to the early art forms for inspiration: Greek, Oriental, the Commedia dell'Arte, and the marionette.

With Stanislavski's rigid naturalism on the one hand and Meyerhold's exaggerated stylization on the other—both beginning to eliminate the individual performer as such—it is not surprising that reformers set forth to reform the Russian theatre. There were three who appeared separately in the year 1912, almost simultaneously, yet on not dissimilar lines. Evreinov, with his idea of a "theatre for its own sake"; Mardshanov, with his Free Theatre for Synthetic performers; and Tairov, with his Moscow Kamerny Theatre, who started negatively: thus his basic principle was a direct reversal of the principles of the naturalistic school as well as the stylistic school, for he realized that both would end by reducing the actor to a position of absolute insignificance. Hence, Tairov became the originator of Expressionism in Russia, securing his principles from the extension of the European movement.

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[1] A. Bakshy, *The Dial*, LXXXIII (January, 1928), 25.

[2] P. A. Markov, *The Soviet Theatre* (London, 1934).

With these new movements in progress it is significant to note that Meyerhold too was experimenting. As early as 1914 he produced *The Unknown* in a manner that had in it the seeds of Constructivism, the scenic essence of abstraction. This was considerably before the Revolution, which was to give the movement its significance. Consequently Meyerhold is sometimes incorrectly considered to be the creator of Constructivism. In reality, however, it was originated by the poet, Gasteff, and further developed by a group of painters and sculptors. But it was Meyerhold who introduced it to the stage, and in so doing gave the theory a practical application. As these early originators attempted to explain their theory, they said its general principles implied "a complete rejection of art as the independent, singular plane of reality which reveals itself in aesthetic experiences."[3] Art was proclaimed to be identical with the true functioning of every form of material in its application to the needs of every day life. Applied to the theatre, this theory demanded a performance that would be merely a dramatically organized event of real life. This could be properly done only outside the theatre, consequently the theatre building was condemned as superfluous, as essentially too "aesthetic." The first attempt at a constructivist production in his theatre, however, necessitated the first compromise in the theory; and since the theatre could not be done away with, it was decided that the stage should be given a constructivist treatment.

The Revolution (1917-1918) was eventually to give this treatment a definite form. The Bolshevist battle cry was "revolt against everything that had formerly existed, a complete break with every kind of inherited practice, a total repudiation of the past with all its traditions."[4] These principles were also applied to the theatre, which was soon to become one of the most important branches of Soviet propaganda. What the workers needed was a theatre that would take an active part in building up the Soviet Union, in helping on the Revolution, in working systematically on the feelings of the audience, and so contributing to the development of a new humanity.

Hence the Propaganda Theatre had its birth, and it was the foundation of all Bolshevik theatrical activities. From the first Meyerhold aligned himself with the Communistic movement, and as a result was given the task of accomplishing this tremendous transformation. With this work he entered into what might be called his third period. He worked out a sort of theatre-army basis for the project, and attempted to get the masses to take part in huge outdoor spectacles on a gigantic scale. Out of this grew what was known as "The Theatre of the Masses," invented and managed by Meyerhold and Evreinov (a far turn from the latter's earlier trends). These men had a two-fold purpose: as politicians they trusted by the constant repetition of their Communistic catchwords and mechanized army pageantry to impress the Revolutionary psychology on the masses, while as artists they hoped that from these novel devices would be begotten an entirely new theatrical art, of a grandeur never before dreamed. It was soon evident, however, that these last hopes were not to be fulfilled. The leaders had to confess that their exhibitions never got beyond a crude and clumsy symbolism with but few traces of originality, although the masses were now preparing their own "plays" collectively and presenting them all over Russia.

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[3] A. Bakshy, *op. cit.*, p. 26.

[4] J. Gregor and R. Fulop-Miller, *The Russian Theatre, Its Character and History* (Philadelphia, N.D.), p. 60.

Meyerhold realized that the old type of theatre could not return as it had been, and also that the mistake should not be made of transforming the theatre entirely "to the streets." So he felt it seemed necessary to reform the older institution in accordance with these new changed ideas as to the aim and scope of dramatic art. To the Bolshevik, "art" could have no independent existence. It was merely a form of political propaganda. The theatre should function as a pulpit where the Bolshevik gospel might be preached: the doctrine of the abolition of the individual by the development of collectivism, or the idea of the mass-man. No longer could the theatre fill the minds of the spectators with foolish ideas about the destinies and emotional problems of individuals. Its task was rather to reproduce true-experiences and thus imbue the public with the spirit of collectivism. As applied to theatrical production this meant specifically that:

1. Every trace of individualism was to be rooted out.
2. The action had to depend solely upon the entire collective entity.
3. Chief stress had to be laid on those things which are common to all humanity, every kind of physical exercise such as walking, running, jumping, gymnastics . . . and only in *externals* can be found these elements "from which a real community of interest may be built up for all mankind."
4. Little attention need be paid to emotional expression.
5. The inner life presented such an infinity of variations and was so inextricably bound up with the very essence and destiny of the individual that it could never be made to serve as the basis for universal brotherhood.

Strictly in accordance with this new spirit, Meyerhold built up a system on a scientific ground, which was to be known as Bio-mechanics and Constructivism; hence we may call this the beginning of his fourth period. As evidence of his supremacy, it is significant to note that in 1920 the name of the State Theatre was changed to The Meyerhold Theatre, and in 1921 the Government Workshops of the Higher Theatrical Board of Management were established with Meyerhold at the head. He now was in a position —politically, socially, and economically— to apply and develop some of the earlier ideas he had experimented with before the Revolution. "His system shows the influence of Taylorism, a method of eliminating waste in human labor; of industrial psychology, a method of eliminating waste in industry; of behaviorism, which attempts to cut out mind and to introduce muscular perception and speech; and of Pavlov's reflexology, a theory of reflex action."[5] As applied to the duties of the actors this concept was called Bio-mechanics. The principal characteristics demand that:

1. All bodily powers must be developed to their highest perfection.
2. All movements must conform to a certain conventional type which all must use in accordance with the latest and simplest formula *devised* by the director.
3. The inner life must, by these movements, be brought out and transferred to the surface.
4. All outward indications of personality must be abolished (costumes included).
5. Motivation for action must be mental and "nervous" rather than emotional.

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[5] Huntley Carter, *The New Spirit in the Russian Theatre* (London, 1929), p. 70.

Carter states that Bio-mechanics

> is a system of brain and body cultivation and control that aims to remove the lack of self-reliance and control found in the conventional professional actor, who is simply a marionette worked by and at the mercy of his emotions, and whose physical movements do not harmonize with his mental ones. In Meyerhold's view it was also a method of making the actor a citizen capable of establishing a real relationship to the audience by realizing in himself its collective necessities, capable, that is, of being socially useful instead of merely mumbling dialogue.[6]

Accordingly, Meyerhold devised and enforced a complete method of gymnastic exercises, beginning with running, climbing, "physical jerks," and jumping, for his actors. (He once said that this bio-mechanistic method of acting could be learned by an actor in a year.) He defended this style of acting by hoping that by the exhibition of these practical accomplishments in the theatre the audience would learn in time to became more useful and profitable members of society. As would be expected, Ilinski, who was considered Meyerhold's best actor, was, in terms of conventional acting, not an actor at all but a very "plastic puppet."

Now that psychological character studies were replaced by physical culture, and subtle polished dialogue by energetic physical feats, the actor's surroundings had to change radically to conform to this bio-mechanical constitution. Thus did Constructivism have a basis for development in the theatre. It was necessary that the stage, and all things on the stage, should be considered as elements of a labor process in no way intended to please the eye or ear of the audience. Out, therefore, went the decorative scenery and all adornments of canvas or other material that served to disguise the actual construction of the object. Instead, there was set up a box-like scaffolding, the construction of which was determined by engineering efficiency and the requirements of the actor's movements. Revolving discs of various colors were introduced to provide a visual time measure corresponding to musical accompaniment. Meyerhold stated, "Our artists must throw down the brush and compass, and lay hold of the axe and hammer for the shaping of that new stage which must be the pattern of our technical world."[7]

To summarize the essential characteristics of the constructivist stage is difficult, in that for each new production there was created almost a new theatre to conform to the demands of the particular play. In general, however, the first plays, which were the most extreme, had the following characteristics:

1. Decorative scenery and adornment were abolished, including the curtain.
2. All devices to create picturesque illusionary effects were discarded.
3. Settings must be dynamic, not static—mobile, not fixed.
4. Economy, by mathematical calculations, was applied to achieve harmony, based on geometric principles.
5. Complications and intricacy were excluded.
6. Constructions (ladders, scaffolds, levels) of wood and iron, with bald simplicity, were used to indicate the technical environment in which the new humanity would grow.
7. Corrugated metal, wood, bamboo, glass, etc., were used for emotional effect in forms which expressed their use; these had never before been used on the Russian stage.
8. The scenery had to be functional, not just form.
9. All actors, men and women, dressed in a uniform of blue overalls. (There was no differentiation for characters; all were the same.)

As productions continued occasional props entered the stage, certain picturesque design entered the constructions, and finally period costumes were used—in fact, after the first few, the treatment of all constructivistic productions tended to be modified. These modifications tended to increase rather than decrease.

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[6] *Loc. cit.*

[7] J. Gregor and R. Fulop-Miller, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

Another important phase of the constructivistic production was the source of dramatic material. From the first, the scarcity of pieces suitable for the new methods of production was apparent. Of Meyerhold's first constructivistic plays—*The Restive Earth, D. E., The Magnificent Cuckold, Tarelkin's Death, Don Juan's Return, Masses and Man*—only Toller's *Masses and Man* was inspired throughout with the Revolutionary spirit. All the others were drawn from the old "bourgeois drama." Bolshevik authors produced countless pieces, each more worthless than the first. Meyerhold saw only one way out: he resolved to adapt the literature of earlier times to his own purposes. To this task he put himself to work, and as a result quite often only the title and the cast of characters (even here there were often additions and omissions) remained of the original—so drastic were his changes. On being attacked, he said,

> But did not all those great masters whom the whole world agrees to honor do just the same—Shakespeare, Sophocles, Schiller, Tirso de Molina, and Pushkin? Adaptation is always justifiable when it springs from real necessity.[8]

Hence he imposed massed scenes, which impressed the spectator with purely physical activities, replaced the usual number of acts with episodes of great number, changed the settings by using hanging platforms and moving staircases, inserted propaganda to bring out Revolutionary principles, and laid greatest stress on scenes dealing with household work—such as ironing, and the cleaning of fish. In so doing, he felt that he was able to bridge the gap between the actor and the spectator which he had long wanted to do. In the Meyerhold of this period we have a man of the theatre in the strictest sense recasting it as a new machine for theatricalizing social life.

The Russian Theatrical Revolution was not content with Meyerhold's constructivistic treatment, however, and for the radical and final transformation these three are representative:

1. Foregger's Atelier, which descended to a series of acrobatic tricks and variety turns. He felt the old world could best be destroyed by making it ridiculous, so he tried to scorn the theatre by parodying it; the "noise-band" and "machine dancing" were popular and are exemplary.[9]
2. The Proletkult Stage under Eisenstein was similar in aim, as was—
3. The Projection Theatre.

"Thus the revolutionizing of the theatre ended in turning the stage into a circus. Eventually many of these new experimental forms collapsed; only Meyerhold's Theatre existed—he is the only one to be taken seriously in his attempt at a new dramatic form."[9]

Two figures should briefly be mentioned here, however, in that they might be considered off-shoots of the primary movement of which Meyerhold was the center, and hence did not follow it to the degraded extreme. Tairov, after the Revolution, found that his "aesthetic theatricality" had outlived its place in the *status quo,* and he attempted to adjust to the present condition at his Karmany Theatre by doing some essentially realistic productions, especially those of Eugene O'Neill, in an attempt to bridge his theatre to the present audience—i.e. the working classes. The late E. Vakhtangoff, who did his work at the first and third Moscow Art Studios, is of note in that he succeeded in effecting a most remarkable union between the principles of psychological truth advocated by Stanislavski and the utter conventionality of the presentational stage manifest by Meyerhold's Constructivism, although he did not accept either of them.

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[8] J. Gregor and R. Fulop-Miller, *op. cit.,* p. 69.

[9] *Ibid.,* p. 72.

Whatever one may think of it, the Revolutionary Theatre—in which Constructivism had its flare—became, and is, an important phenomenon of Russian life. Repulsive as one may find the idea of stripping the stage of its aesthetic and literary significance and using it as a weapon of political strife, one must admit that this new theatre has had a powerful and lasting effect upon the masses. "In Russia the theatre and the everyday life are closely linked, and this explains the wide influence of the Russian stage as well as its startling eccentricities."[10]

EPILOGUE

In the fifth period of Meyerhold, it is interesting to note that he himself changed from Constructivism toward Direct Symbolism. His productions became static, no longer dynamic. Real details replaced constructions; things were used to arouse emotion; conventionalized pose took the place of his conventionized action. In 1932 plans were drawn for his new theatre, to be built on the "penhouse" idea of the stage in the center of the audience. This theatre was never built, however, and in 1938 his own theatre was disbanded. He was appointed regisseur at the Stanislavski Opera House. This is regarded by the Communist critics, who observe in terms of the state, not of art, as an indication that he has fallen into disrepute, that his days of usefulness to the state are past.

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[10] *Loc. cit.*

A CRITIQUE OF GENERAL SEMANTICS: "TWO TIMES TWO IS THE SAME FOR EVERYBODY, BUT ONE NEVER IS . . ."*

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I

THERE is a new faith spread among us. Before we can decide whether to embrace it, we should examine with care its assumptions and tenets. In the Koran of this new faith, Count Korzybski has written: "Enquiry shows that some extensional and other methods of modern mathematics, mathematical physics, physics, etc., can be applied to human problems. . . . A modern scientific extensional analysis of human reactions discloses that at the foundations of human daily orientations there still persists a remnant of primitive 'false knowledge,' embodied in a conscious or unconscious *intensional* belief in 'identity,' which plays the role of an intensional 'absolute.' The complete extensional elimination of this harmful 'false knowledge' and 'absolute' is even more far-reaching and constructively revolutionary for human general orientations in life and science, than the Einstein theory has been for physics. It allows us for the first time to base human general orientations and relations on modern extensional scientific methodology."[1]

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* Presented at a General Session of the Twenty-seventh Annual Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, in the Palmer House, Chicago, December 29, 1942. The title quotation is from the play *Across the Board on Tomorrow Morning* by William Saroyan, cf. *The Beautiful People and Two Other Plays.* (1941), p. 214.

Korzybski says, further, "The present work therefore formulates a system, called non-Aristotelian, which is based on the complete rejection of identity and its derivatives, and shows what very simple yet powerful structural factors of sanity can be found in science."[2]

I should like to suggest that this system may not be the scientific panacea it claims to be, that it may not be applicable to speech education; and that even if it were both scientific and applicable to our field, it would still be undesirable as a rationale in the teaching of speech.

I shall not tell you that the system of General Semantics is not non-Aristotelian but, rather, neo-Aristotelian; you know as well or far better than I that Aristotle and all the writers in the field of rhetoric since have distinguished between what the father of rhetoric called "artistic" and "nonartistic" proofs. I shall only remind you that Aristotle wrote, "Words are the signs of ideas which, in turn, are the signs of things." I shall not attempt to prove to you that Korzybski's reduction of all the "neuro-semantic" problems of the world to the common denominator of intensional vs. extensional meaning is oversimplification in the face of modern psychological evidence. I shall but mention that any system of thought that limits itself to destructive criticism and negativism cannot be truly helpful. I do tell you, in brief, that Korzybski presents the problem and adds to it without making any real attempt to solve it. He adds a new and confusing terminology to the multitude of those he professes to deplore.

These matters of terminology, of originality, of oversimplification, of critical destruction, I mention only in passing. My real quarrel with the science or the philosophy of the General Semanticists is a more basic one. It is twofold: in the first place, General Semantics cannot be significant in the field of speech education because the tenets of this new cult do not square with the facts; in the second place, even if we should suppose, for the sake of argument, that General Semantics could be a determining factor in speech training, the system cannot be fitted into our way of life.

II

Let us inquire into the first of these matters: that General Semantics cannot act as a significant force in speech education. The assumption made by the General Semanticists that human relationships and adjustments can be observed, measured and predicted by means of *a* if not *the* scientific method is based upon faulty premises. Speech education and human relationships and adjustments combine to form reversible equations. Even the behaviorists, in dealing with linguistic behavior, have had either to leave a blank, an "x" in their evidence or to come over to the position of Zipf when he writes in his book, *The Psycho-Biology of Language,* that language is behavior but that language is also a configuration. He writes: "All experience is reaction, patterned at its source. All reaction is expression, once we become aware of it. And all expression is language, once we can decipher it. What we have been terming language is only that particular portion of behavior for which the code is pretty generally known."[3]

Of this code he speaks further: ". . . there is a danger in thus adding and subtracting the parts of a configuration.

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[1] Alfred Korzybski, Outline of General Semantics. *General Semantics; papers from the first American Congress for General Semantics,* 1935. Edited by Hansell Baugh. Arrow Editions, New York, 1938.

[2] Alfred Korzybski, *Science and Sanity* (Lancaster, Pa., 1933. Revised, 1941), p. ix.

[3] George K. Zipf, *The Psycho-Biology of Language* (Boston, 1935), pp. 278, 309.

It is almost self-evident that in one sense a configuration represents more than the agglomerative sum of its words, or a word more than the sum of its phonemes. Were a configuration but a sum of its parts, then the configurations, *the bull charged the woman* and *the woman charged the bull,* or the configurations, *cat* and *act,* would be the same."[4]

Zipf applies the methods of scientific investigation to speech, true, but to speech as a continuum of observable and measurable gestures; he does not attempt an objective analysis of meaning or configuration; nor does he try to anatomize what Twitmeyer and Nathanson called the "x-factor"[5] or what West calls "residual diathesis."[6]

Now, Count Korzybski and those who follow in his train would insist that the scientific procedures of analysis, observation, measurement and prediction be applied to all human behavior and social relationships. They specify language as the behavior peculiar to humans and language as the medium of exchange in social relationships. That Elwood Murray agrees with this tenet that a way of speech is a way of life, I hardly need remind this audience. In his textbook he wrote in 1939: "Speech is the chief means whereby social relations and personal adjustments are carried on. . . . As the chief tool for human relations speech is at the center of effective living. . . . Speech development parallels personality development. . . . The 'speech personality' is the personality both as built up and as expressed through speech."[7] And he underlined this in 1940: "And this brings us to the function of speech, its true function, and perhaps even its only justifiable function. That function is that speech should serve as a social integrator. . . ."[8]

Our evidence so far would tend to indicate that speech is personality, that it is the most human of all behavior and, therefore, that it is most dependent upon this unmeasurable "x-factor." This is true in any branch of the ever-growing tree of speech; it is true in direct communication, be it conversation between two individuals or a radio address made by the President of the United States to millions of fireside listeners; it is equally true in the speech clinic where we frequently devote more time to psychotherapy than to speech therapy; it is especially true in interpretation where we must give of what we have; where, as Curry phrased it so tersely: "Impression must precede expression."[9]

Now, I do not want to imply that I think personality is an indefinite something or a mystic veil in which each of us is wrapped. This is not my belief. There are several constituents of personality that should be measured to the best of our present ability: appearance, intelligence, temperament, attitudes and beliefs. Our standards of measurement for temperament, beliefs and attitudes are still, most of us will agree, in the experimental stages, and some doubt that these standards will ever get far beyond these levels; even appearance and intelligence can be measured by our present yardsticks only if we start our mensuration by limiting the things measurable by our measures. We are in the position of the intoxicated man who had lost his latch-key. He searched for it under the streetlight, not because he had lost it there, but because there was more light there.

For the purposes of this discussion, we

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[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 278-279.

[5] E. B. Twitmeyer and Y. S. Nathanson, *Correction of Defective Speech* (Philadelphia, 1932), p. xii.

[6] Robert West, Lou Kennedy and Anna Carr, *The Rehabilitation of Speech* (1937), pp. 65-66.

[7] Elwood Murray, *The Speech Personality* (Philadelphia, 1939, revised), pp. 3-15.

[8] Elwood Murray, "Speech Standards and Social Integration," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (February, 1940), 75.

[9] S. S. Curry, *Imagination and the Dramatic Instinct* (Boston, 1896), p. 7.

are most deeply concerned not with personality in itself but with personality as it affects the individual and those about him. Weaver's definition of the term "personality" is helpful in establishing this concept: "an individual's personality is the potential meaning which he has for those who come into contact with him."[10]

This brings us to the crux of the matter: Can General Semantics be a significant factor in the transmission of meanings? The corollary question must be, of course: Can meaning be reduced to the same factors for any individual? Not *should* it, this time, just *can* it?

Before we can answer these questions, we must know something of meaning itself. Meaning is not easy to define. Meaning is dependent upon symbolization: the reacting in the presence of one thing as if we were in the presence of some other thing. Human beings learn this type of reaction quickly; we seem to have a constitutional diathesis toward it; it is part of our destiny and is inescapable. Whether we call it learned behavior, symbolization, conditioned response, intensional meaning or identification matters not; it is part of human behavior. To the hungry baby, the sight of his mother means food; to the wet baby, the sight of his mother means dry clothing; the same symbol, then, may have different meanings in different contexts, even for the same individual.

At the end of every class period, the final bell means something quite different to each member of the class. After an 8 o'clock, it may mean breakfast to one individual, a coke-date to another, a 9-o'clock class to a third, and a stack of papers to be read to the instructor. At the end of the last class in the morning, the bell (the same bell that has sounded at ten minutes before each hour since 7:50) may stimulate salivary secretion when it has not done so before; that bell takes the place of, is a symbol for, *means* luncheon just as surely as the sight and smell of food would mean it. Meaning cannot exist apart from the responding organism any more than personality can. Meaning cannot be the same for all men any more than personality can. Therefore, General Semantics, in its naïvely ambitious attempt to standardize meaning and the human reactions resulting from the perception and interpretations of meanings seems destined to failure because it conflicts with truth.

A man's meaning is his particular *style,* if we care to use another word and another illustration. "Le style, c'est l'homme même" (style, it is the man himself) is as true as when Buffon said it. J. Middleton Murry sums up the matter admirably when he writes, "Style is the expression of an individual mode of experience."[11] Style or meaning cannot be measured and predicted in terms of relativity; it is an "absolute" for each individual.

General Semantics, then, cannot be a determining factor in speech education because it cannot accomplish its primary end in this most human of all the fields of human behavior; it cannot, in the words of its leader, accomplish the "complete extensional elimination of this harmful 'false knowledge' or 'absolute' " because the false knowledge or absolute is the as yet indefinable and ever-elusive "x-factor" that makes human beings different from other animals.

There is a certain confusion inherent in General Semantics; its own apostles admit that extensionalization is insufficient for linguistic satisfaction of human needs; finally, the semanticist's concept of neurological behavior does not follow that of standard works on the subject.

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[10] A. T. Weaver, *Speech, Forms and Principles* (1941), p. 287.

[11] J. Middleton Murry, *The Problem of Style* (Cambridge, 1930), pp. 3-8.

That I am not alone in perceiving this confusing state of affairs is evident from two statements I should like to read to you. The first is from Korzybski's introductory chapter in *Science and Sanity:* "My earnest suggestion, backed by experience, to the reader is to read the book through several times. . . . At each reading the issues will become clearer until they will become entirely his own. Superficial reading of the book is to be positively discouraged, as it will prove to be so much time wasted."[12]

The second is written by a physician concerning two patients in an institution for the care and treatment of nervous and mental disorders: "The first few conferences were devoted to facilitating the grasping as well as to clarifying the understanding of Korzybski's contributions and system."[13]

The master himself insists that intelligent, supposedly normal individuals must expect to read and to reread his writings before they can hope to grasp the rudiments of the system. Two neurotic, if not psychotic, individuals devote a few one-hour conferences to the problem and not only grasp but clarify the material! There is more here than meets the eye!

A letter written by one of these patients whose problem included acute alcoholism included this observation: "My studies in my new field and in Semantics have so monopolized my time and interests that alcohol no longer has its old appeal."[14] Is this course of treatment new and is it General Semantics, or is it the accepted psycho-therapeutic technique of substituting a more desirable interest for a less desirable one?

Since it appears that the semanticists tend to be confused in their own terminology and its application, perhaps we should not be surprised to find one of the chief apostles crying in the wilderness. He does not seem to realize that he is outside the pale, for he attempts to rationalize his ideas into the "system." Hayakawa, writing last May in *Poetry: A Magazine of Verse* on the subject, "The Linguistic Approach to Poetry," says that there must, of course, be "public and private discriminations."[15] He tries to divide extensionalizations on this basis. What his writing boils down to, however, is this: extensionalization is all very well in its place, but in the reading of poetry, to himself or to others, man needs intentionalization as well. Until he has touched off meanings in himself he cannot touch off the meanings peculiar to and in each of his hearers that will enable them to appreciate poetry and other literature fully.

Now, this is not new. This is not General Semantics. This is sensible and logical and quite applicable to the field of speech education; every informed teacher of interpretation and public speaking and speech correction has been preaching and practicing this doctrine for years. All modern science is motivated by the intelligent application of science to life. To call such attempts at applying science to life, however, General Semantics would be as presumptuous as to call all humanitarian philosophies Christian, with a capital C; or as to designate all good government as Democratic, with a capital D; or as to label all good teaching as Progressive, with a capital P.

It may be that the disciples of Korzybski know not that they know not. I shall not speculate upon this matter. It may be that those of us who study and attempt to teach speech stumbled long ago upon the basic truth that the

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[12] *Science and Sanity*, pp. 11-12.

[13] Hansell Baugh, editor, *General Semantics; papers from the first American Congress for General Semantics*, 1935. (1938), p. 96.

[14] Baugh, *loc. cit.*

[15] S. I. Hayakawa, "The Linguistic Approach to Poetry," *Poetry: A Magazine of Verse*, L (May, 1942), 86-94.

Korzybskians are trying to develop today. It may be that we have already applied the scientific method wherever we can and that we have learned that there are some areas in which we must be content with what we call, according to our lights, divine or physiological synthesis and be willing to study the behavior without attempting to take it to the dissection-table. It may be that the General Semanticists are now passing through that trial-and-error period and that they will discover shortly that the scientific method may be and should be applied whenever possible but that there is also "personal potential" to be reckoned with.

S. G. Rosenthal, director of the Central School of Adult Education in New York City, suggests this when he phrases it in this manner, "Words are but symbols for our thoughts and often the symbol and the substance blend until it is hard to recognize at what point the one merges into the other."[16] Burke, in his recent book, *The Philosophy of Literary Form,* goes still farther in defense of the need for a double standard in linguistics: "Poetry . . . is undertaken as *equipment for living,* as a ritualistic way of arming us to confront perplexities and risks. It would *protect* us."[17]

Perhaps one of the best summaries of this matter is to be found in Pollock's volume, *The Nature of Literature:* "Normally an experience involves many *private* discriminations which cannot be expressed satisfactorily through a referential use of language. . . . What literature attempts to express and what, when successful, it communicates, is not abstractions from, but something at least a great deal nearer the full richness of an author's actual psycho-physiological experience."[18] Burke sums up the matter succinctly: "The poetic ideal being obviously aesthetic, we could in contrast call the semantic ideal an-aesthetic."[19]

In attempting to reconcile the reading and appreciation of poetry with the system of General Semantics, it seems to me that Hayakawa does what many of us tend to do at one time or another. We confuse semantics and General Semantics. The one deals with meaning of words, the other with the concept of the application of the scientific method to all human relationships as a new and revolutionary doctrine.

Thus there is in General Semantics a confusion of ideas that is disturbing enough to compel even the general semanticists to look for further explanation of neuro-semantic behavior. In *Science and Sanity* Korzybski speaks of relieving the thalamus by silence and putting more nerve currents through the cortex in order to achieve extensionalization.[20] All sensory pathways to the cortex get there by way of the thalamus; it is the great sensory transfer point; many incoming stimuli go no farther than the thalamus. Speech is not, usually, on the thalamic level; Hughlings Jackson did point out that swearing and certain other emotional language may be considered to be on this nonreasoning level since such speech sometimes persists when the cortical area subserving speech is damaged.[21]

However, reasoned language, overt or implicit, is, it is generally agreed, mediated by the Broca's area located in the third frontal convolution of the left cerebral cortex in right-handed individuals.[22] Therefore, it appears that silence would not necessarily relieve the thalamus and, further, that silence is no royal road to abstraction, nonidentification or whatever you may choose to call the process of cortical activity. While it may be a moot question as to whether more or less thalamic behavior is desirable among teachers of speech, this lack of clarity in explaining the role of the brain in speech may or may not be considered characteristic of the general semanticists.

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[16] S. G. Rosenthal, "Words, Thoughts and Feelings." *Journal of Adult Education,* XIII (October, 1941), 379-381.

[17] Kenneth Burke, *The Philosophy of Literary Form* (Baton Rouge, 1938), pp. 293-304.

[18] Thomas C. Pollock, *The Nature of Literature* (Princeton, 1942), p. 97.

[19] Kenneth Burke, *op. cit.,* p. 150.

[20] *Op. cit.* p. 422.

[21] J. Hughlings Jackson, *Selected Writings.* Edited by James Taylor. (London, 1932), II, 159-160.

[22] Stephen W. Ranson, *The Anatomy of the Nervous System.* (Sixth edition, Philadelphia, 1941), p. 287.

If we have interpreted fairly the doctrine of General Semantics, we must conclude that as teachers of speech we cannot accept this creed as a significant factor in speech education because it tends to veer too sharply from established truths. To summarize briefly: General Semantics overlooks the impossibility of the complete analysis of personality or meaning; in its attempt to simplify existing terminologies, it introduces a new one that is so confusing even the general semanticists themselves cannot be consistent in its use and application; finally, it does not take proved neurological fact in its account of the functioning of the central nervous system in linguistic activities. And, as Irving Lee, a convert from our field to their "system," says in his recent book: "Unreliability results when utterances do not fit facts."[23]

III

There is another reason for the a-significance of General Semantics as a factor in speech education. Even if this neo-Aristotelian system were rooted in fact as firmly as in fancy, this second reason could not be overlooked.

In this transitional period through which we are living we are likely to find ourselves grasping at straws. Many of us are, because of the tension generated by uncertainty and insecurity (both personal and professional), turning to whatever appears most solid. For some of us this means a turning or a returning to religious faith; for others, belief in science, pure or not; for still others, a casting aside of all creeds save the epicurean. In times of stress many new doctrines and cults arise to draw the intellectually uncertain and the spiritually insecure.

With the beginning of the Nazi terror in 1933, many intelligent people throughout the world saw the handwriting on the wall; and, as in the years from 1900 to 1914, the orthography was in *Deutsche* script. Consciously or unconsciously, the more ingenious and concerned of these people began building fronts against a potential enemy. Some of these defenses were against guns and tanks; others were against a more deadly offensive, that of philosophical infiltration. The builders of these latter defenses realized that the impending struggle was to be one way of life pitted against another; that it must be, as Hamilton Fish Armstrong so pithily put it, "we or they." These intuitive, sensitive individuals knew we should have to fight ideology with ideology, and that the fitter would survive. Korzybski is one of the most brilliant of these counterattackers. He fell, however, into one of the common dangers with which all counter-plans are fraught; he carried his substitute for world disorder and confusion so far that there are totalitarian aspects to his plan of General Semantics.

Now, I do not mean to say or even to suggest that I advocate the acceptance of Teutonic, Romanic or Nipponese doctrines as preferable to those advanced by the general semanticists. I do mean to say that it is our obligation to examine with some care just what we are fighting for and to ask ourselves: does the system of General Semantics fit into our way of life?

Very well, what are we fighting for?

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[23] Irving Lee, *Language Habits in Human Affairs* (1941), p. 8.

For truth or freedom or justice or right or democracy. We mean the same thing. Elwood Murray, in 1940, felt that speech and speech education were important in this fight, for he wrote: "The essential element in the speech act is the meeting of minds on the basis of truth."[24]

What is truth or democracy? Thomas Mann in a new book, *Order of the Day*, writes that democracy is timelessly human. He goes on to say: "For it is a singular thing, this human nature, and distinguished from the rest of nature by the very fact that it has been endowed with the idea, is dominated by the idea, and cannot exist without it, since human nature is what it is because of the idea. The idea is a specific and essential attribute of man, that which makes him human. . . . The word 'justice' is only one name for the idea—only one; there are other names which can be substituted that are equally strong, by no means lacking in vitality; on the contrary, even rather terrifying—for example, freedom and truth. . . . Each one expresses the idea in its totality, and one stands for the others. If we say *truth*, we also say *freedom* and *justice*; if we speak of freedom and justice, we mean truth. It is a complex of an indivisible kind, freighted with spirituality and elementary dynamic force. We call it the absolute. To man has been given the absolute—be it a curse or a blessing, it is a fact."[25]

Korzybski, you will recall, pledges the destruction of the harmful "false knowledge" or "absolute"; he would say, because science cannot put it under the microscope, away with it. This is the totalitarian principle at work. This is not the democratic recognition of individual rights, personal potential, residual diathesis, "x-factor," or absolute. It matters not what we call it; the problem resolves itself into a struggle between two philosophies—the one concerned only with *life*, the other with the fuller matter of *living*.

Charles Merriam of the University of Chicago faculty tells us what we are fighting for in his little book called *What Is Democracy?*: "We know that despotism and violence are pretexts for power, not philosophies of life. . . . What happens in a battle or a war or a series of wars is important, to be sure, but these events do not affect the validity of an ideal or the prospect of the ultimate ideal association of men. . . . Democracy is not a mere form, a mere mechanism, as some seem to think, to be worshipped as an idol. Democracy is a spirit, an attitude toward our fellow-men, a mode of political cooperation through which the human personality may find the finest and richest expression of human values. The form is not the end; it is the means toward an end—the happiness of mankind."[26]

How close he comes to Aristotle who wrote: "Both individually and collectively, we may say, men all have some object at which they aim in whatever they choose and whatever they avoid. This object may be summarily described as Happiness, with its constituent parts."[27]

Because the spirit of which Merriam speaks is not scientifically discernible and measurable, the general semanticists would say it does not exist and should not be considered. It is intensional and in our modern scientific world we must be extensional. Granted that we must be critical and questioning and analytical of even Aristotelian precepts; granted that much of good and of real progress may come of such questioning and subsequent investigation, I think we need not be ashamed to admit there is a power greater than man and his scientific attitude. It is not a sign of weakness or of inadequacy to admit there are some things we do not know and probably cannot expect to know fully; it is, rather, a sign of intelligence. St. Paul wrote that we know in part; that when we are become men, then shall we know fully. Be we religious or scoffing, we cannot avoid the application of this statement. We have not, in Korzybski's terms, reached the "manhood of humanity."[28]

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[24] Elwood Murray, "Speech Standards and Social Integration," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (February, 1940), p. 75.

[25] Thomas Mann, *Order of the Day*. (1942), pp. 118, 120.

[26] Charles Merriam, *What Is Democracy?* (Chicago, 1941), pp. 91-92.

[27] Lane Cooper, *The Rhetoric of Aristotle* (1932), p. 24.

Even Julian Huxley, the eminent scientist and descendant of an eminent scientist, implies, while advocating more application of scientific method to human affairs, that we must realize the limitations of science. He advocates not the destruction of the "absolute" but the recognition and testing of it. He concludes: "To become truly adult we must learn to bear the burden of incertitude. . . . The most difficult lesson to learn is that irrational and intolerant certitude is undesirable . . . but it must be learned if we are to emerge from psychological barbarism."[29]

We need not, then, go with the certitude of the general semanticists and their predilection for prediction. We can follow a middle road upon which many of the great scientific and philosophical thinkers of contemporary times are already traveling. It is not a matter of this or nothing; we need not accept General Semantics or be eternally lost.

Not only need we not accept this creed; we must not allow ourselves to be persuaded to accept it. I believe the general semanticists do not realize that they follow so closely along totalitarian principles; I think they believe they are fighting with us for democracy. But they are misleading themselves and attempting to mislead us without knowing that they do. You and I must fight for the way of life that does not lose sight of human values of living; we must keep alive the truth that men cannot live by bread alone.

Since General Semantics, then, does not embody the philosophy for which we are united here today, we cannot accept it as a significant factor in speech education, for speech education is education for living. We have discovered that this system does not seem to square with the established knowledge in our field; now it tends to become apparent that even if the system did fit with the truth we know, it is unacceptable in spirit and incapable of application in all areas of living. Upon the basis of our evidence, you and I, as teachers of speech in a democracy, dare not endanger that democracy and the dignity of man for which it stands by an acceptance of a system dedicated to the destruction of the ideals on which democracy is built.

In their doctrine of "non-isness"[30] the general semanticists insist that we shall not say anything *is*. They neglect, however, an equally important corollary that William Saroyan does not forget in his play, *The Beautiful People*. Owen speaks: "I've got to find out about nouns before I move to verbs. You've got to be careful about verbs, otherwise you'll get things all mixed up—even worse than they are already. Is. That's a verb. I've got to be careful when I use a word like that."[31] The general semanticists forgot to find out about nouns before they moved to verbs. Let us not forget.

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[28] Alfred Korzybski, *Manhood of Humanity: the Science and Art of Human Engineering* (1921).

[29] Julian Huxley, "The Biologist Looks at Man," *Fortune*, XXVI, 139-152.

[30] Alfred Korzybski, *op. cit.*, pp. 371-561 *passim.*

[31] William Saroyan, *op. cit.*, p. 67.

THE NEW MEMBERSHIP REQUIREMENTS OF THE AMERICAN SPEECH CORRECTION ASSOCIATION

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DURING the past year, and particularly at the 1942 War Service Convention in Chicago, frequent requests were received by the Committee on Education of the American Speech Correction Association for an explanation of the new membership requirements that were established at the 1941 convention, and amended at the 1942 convention. This article is in response to these requests.

Many years ago the Committee on Education was created as a standing committee to deal with all aspects of professional standards and education. In 1938, under the chairmanship of M. D. Steer of Purdue University,[1] action was started toward the investigation and setting up of positive standards. National defense activities soon forced Professor Steer's retirement from the Chairmanship, but he retained his interest in the work of the Committee and was of great aid to it in the early stages. He did not resign from the Committee until he was sure that its work would be done. Meanwhile, the writer was appointed to succeed Professor Steer as Chairman.

In March, 1940, a survey was commenced of the speech corrective work of all colleges and universities in this country. It was felt that before changes could be recommended in the constitution and bylaws, it was essential that the exact facts be known concerning professional preparation in the field, as well as the exact status of clinical work. The survey was completed in the fall of 1940, with only two institutions refusing to cooperate, and as a result the Committee on Education made a long series of recommendations concerning membership. Not all of these recommendations were adopted at the 1941 convention, but at the 1942 convention, further study by the Committee had convinced most of the dissenting members of the American Speech Correction Association, and the Committee's original recommendations were accepted in toto.

In a professional organization, one whose major emphasis really is professional, the membership requirements should do two things: 1. It should be such that the membership reflects the status of the work in the country at the time and includes all ethical professional persons in the field. 2. Its qualifications for membership should have definite weight in improving the professional standards of workers in the country.

If the first qualification for membership is met, there is no ethical reason for any person to remain outside the membership, and therefore nonmembers must bear the presumption of either ignorance or unethical practice.

If the second qualification for membership is met, there is immediately available for administrators, and other lay persons not directly engaged in professional practice, a body of evidence as to the type of preparation that should be provided for students who enter a particular institution with the express purpose of being trained in speech correction. There is here no compulsion or "grading" of institutions, and the Committee at all times avoided any action that would suggest it was attempting to dictate what the curricular practice should be in any college or university. The Committee will, upon request, evaluate the program of any particular institution, and has done so in the past; but such action must be requested by the particular college or department.

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[1] Other members of the Committee at the time were Sara Stinchfield Hawk, Elizabeth D. McDowell, Jane Bliss Taylor, and Martin F. Palmer.

When the survey begun in 1940 was completed, it was seen that the various colleges could be grouped as follows:

1. Those that maintained a clinic, gave a set program of courses, and stated that their graduates were professionally trained to do speech correction.
2. Those that maintained a clinic, gave courses, but stated that their graduates were expected to continue their professional training at other schools.
3. Those that maintained a clinic, and gave a course or two in speech correction.
4. Those that maintained a clinic.
5. Those that were unaware of the existence of speech correction, those that were aware of it, but had not yet installed a clinic, etc.

From these replies, and from a survey of the qualifications of the membership of the Association at that time, it was easy to see that present workers in the field of speech correction fall into four main classes:

1. Those with little preparation, perhaps not even the bachelor's degree, who were nevertheless interested and in most cases were doing some speech corrective work.
2. Those with a moderate amount of preparation, working mainly as school teachers or on the staffs of various clinics.
3. Those really quite well prepared, mainly with master's degrees, who were heads of clinics, heads of work in public school systems, engaged in general diagnosis of cases on their own responsibility and initiative, and were practicing speech correction on all types of cases.
4. A small group of excellently prepared clinicians and research workers who were sending out a steady stream of contributions to the professional journals.

It seemed logical, therefore, to set the membership qualifications into four classes, and to determine the qualifications for the most part on the practicability of individuals being able to obtain such training in the largest number of colleges and universities.

This was done, and the Committee's recommendations incorporated in toto into the constitution and bylaws of the American Speech Correction Association at the 1942 convention in Chicago.

With this background, we come now to the qualifications for the various classes of membership:

1. *Associates.* Any individual who is ethical, interested in the field, and of professional integrity may get an application form from the secretary, D. W. Morris, Indiana State Teacher's College, Terre Haute, Indiana. The applicant should have it signed by a Fellow of the Association. (The latest list of Fellows is published each year in the March issue of the *Journal of Speech Disorders.*) The applicant should then return the signed card to the secretary. This card is circulated among a challenging committee of the Association, and if the applicant is not challenged he is duly declared elected. If he is challenged, his name will be put to a vote of the Association. Challenges are on ethical grounds. The individual is entitled to receive issues of the *Journal of Speech Disorders* upon payment of $3.00 annual dues for Associateship. Or he can subscribe to the *Journal* at the time of his application.

2. *Clinical members.* Any individual, either a present member of the Association, or a nonmember, may apply for Clinical Membership. He should write to the secretary as above, and request an application form for Clinical Membership. There are definite professional requirements. A clinical member must have completed 18 semester hours, or the equivalent in quarter hours, which may be distributed in any possible combination among phonetics, anatomy, physi-

ology, and physics of voice; psychology and neurology of speech; speech pathology, correction, therapy; clinical, and laboratory methods, research, etc. He must have a course in speech pathology and correction. Otherwise he may omit any of the other subjects at will so long as the total is 18 hours. He must also have 12 hours in any allied field such as psychology, medicine, psychometrics, mental hygiene, etc., exclusive of the speech arts. He must have had 200 clock hours of clinical training under supervision. He must have had a year's experience, preferably of an interneship nature, but employment experience is accepted. His application must be signed by two Fellows and returned to the secretary. The type of person meant by a clinical member is clearly described in these minimal, extremely minimal, requirements.

3. *Professional members.* Here again, the individual must get the application form from the secretary, complete it, have it signed by two Fellows and return it to the secretary. The requirements are all of those required for Clinical Members, plus certain additional requirements that bring the direct professional preparation up to 42 semester hours in place of 18 semester hours as above, and 4 years of professional experience instead of one. This class is definitely, therefore, the class of those who are completely and fully trained in this field.

4. *Fellows.* The individual again applies to the secretary for an application form, has it signed by two Fellows and returns it to the secretary. In addition to the requirements for Professional Membership, a Fellow must have published three objective papers of merit in the field, or published the results of a study of fifty cases from his own clinic. The type of person desired here for Fellowship is also perfectly clear.

Examination. In setting standards of professional competency where none had been set before, it was realized that certain highly skilled professional workers now in the field would be discriminated against, simply because the training they received at the time of their entrance to college was not well defined. Therefore, the constitution and bylaws of the Association provide that any person, either a member or nonmember of the Association may apply to the Committee on Education by writing to D. W. Morris, the secretary-treasurer of the Association at Indiana State Teacher's College, Terre Haute, Indiana, and requesting that an examination for clinical membership be administered. The examination for clinical membership is intended to demonstrate that the individual is as capably prepared as those who take the prescribed thirty hours in colleges. It contains noncontroversial questions of fact.

Examination privileges are also provided for individuals who have been Associate Members for the past five years, and who wish to demonstrate competency on the professional level. This examination for Professional Membership is, of course, considerably more difficult and lengthy than that offered for Clinical Membership.

The Committee on Education represents in its membership a number of divergent theoretical trends, and the examinations attempt to avoid this issue, although the candidate is expected to be familiar with present theories of work.

To be sure that the matter is clear, an outline of the four main classes of membership is presented here, with the qualifications necessary for each:

1. *Associate:*

a. Good character and professional integrity.

b. Recommendation of one Fellow of the Association.

c. Professional inclination.

2. *Clinical Membership:*

a. All of the above plus:

b. The equivalent of 18 semester hours in the field, including phonetics, voice science, research, speech pathology, speech correction, laboratory methods, etc. Courses in speech education, and the speech arts are not to be counted.

c. The equivalent of 12 semester hours in any one or more of the allied fields such as psychometrics, mental hygiene, physiology, medicine, etc., exclusive of the speech arts.

d. Signature of two Fellows of the Association.

e. The bachelor's degree or the equivalent.

f. One year of experience following graduation.

g. Two hundred clock hours of clinical training in the clinic of the recommending college.

h. Or examination.

3. *Professional membership:*

a. The above, plus 24 semester hours or the equivalent in the speech sciences in courses emphasizing clinical theory and practice, making a total of 42 semester hours in all.

b. Four years' total experience in speech corrective work.

4. *Fellowship:*

a. Requirements for Professional Membership must be met.

b. Three objective papers must have been published by the applicant, or one objective paper based on at least fifty case studies of original merit.

WHAT THE EXPERTS SAY ABOUT NASALITY

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INTRODUCTION

THE purposes of this investigation are to arrive at a good definition of nasality, to divide it into logical types, to discover the causes of each type, and to learn what corrective measures should be used. The study does not discuss cleft-palate defects nor list specific corrective exercises.

The basis of this study is 44 books and articles, written by 53 different authors. Each of these books or articles is considered a source or authority, even though there may be some overlapping of authorship.[1]

This study, like all of its type, is limited in that it deals with quotations and ideas lifted from context. Although I have carefully tried to get and keep the authors' exact meanings, I may have made some errors in interpretation. To the best of my ability and knowledge, however, statements and quotations made here represent accurately the viewpoints of the authorities consulted.

DEFINITIONS AND TYPES

Twenty of the 44 authorities give substantially the same definition and make the same two main divisions of the field of nasality. Although they use slightly different terms to label their types, each one has basically the same idea. Their definition and division into types must stand, since, of the remaining 24 authorities, 7 give insufficient evidence for any sort of definition or classification and 17 do not include the same area in nasality. They either make no definite groupings or disagree among themselves on what sort of grouping should be made.[1]

According to the 20 authorities who are in agreement, nasality, or *rhinolalia,* the medical term commonly used to denote this voice quality, should be defined and divided into types as follows:

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[1] See the combined bibliography and appendix for the names of the authorities used.

> Nasality, or *rhinolalia,* is one kind of unpleasant voice quality characterized by too much or too little nasal resonance.

The voice quality characterized by too much nasal resonance is known as *rhinolalia aperta* (or "open nasality") and may be defined as follows:

> *Rhinolalia aperta* is the unpleasant voice quality resulting from too much resonance in nasal cavities that have nothing physically wrong with them.

The opposite condition, that of too little nasal resonance, is called *rhinolalia clausa* (or "closed nasality") and may be explained as follows:

> *Rhinolalia clausa* is the unpleasant voice quality resulting from too little resonance or improper resonance from physically unhealthy, malformed, or obstructed nasal cavities.

A combination of these two types of unpleasant voice qualities is possible if the improper functioning that causes *rhinolalia aperta* operates at the time the nasal cavities are physically unhealthy, malformed, or obstructed. *Rhinolalia mixta* describes this condition.

The term *rhinolalia* is preferable to nasality, for the former term commonly includes the whole field of nasality and is normally divided into *aperta* and *clausa,* while nasality to some authorities means only *rhinolalia aperta.* By these authorities *rhinolalia clausa* is called denasality. Others, however, though they use the term nasality to cover the whole field, seem unaware of the existence of the *clausa* part of nasality.

It was interesting to compare these definitions and types with the ones given in a "temporary and incomplete edition" of *A Dictionary of Terms Dealing with Disorders of Speech,* prepared by Samuel D. Robbins and Sara Stinchfield (Hawk), and published in 1931 by the Nomenclature Committee of the American Society for the Study of Disorders of Speech, now the American Speech Correction Association.

The treatment in the *Dictionary of Terms* of *rhinolalia* was unsatisfactory. Discussion of its 1931 material is useless here, for the Expression Company (Boston) will publish early in 1943 a revision by Robbins, Hawk, and G. Oscar Russell.

CAUSES

Practically all authors who discuss *rhinolalia clausa* state that it is caused by some obstruction, malformation, or diseased condition in the nasal cavity. (The term "nasal cavity" includes all the space from just above the velum to the tip of the nares.) However, Ida C. Ward says that sometimes a person might exhibit the effects of *rhinolalia clausa* without any obstruction, merely through habit.

> There are people, however, who speak in this way without having adenoid growths, merely through careless habits possibly set up through frequent colds. (P. 47)[2]

Miss Ward's declaration is wholly at variance with the position taken by most other authorities, unless she means that the patient has some nasal deformity or abnormality not immediately apparent. She might, however, be referring to *aperta* effects brought about as stated by Browne and Behnke:

> It may be objected that if the nasal passages are obstructed, as, for instance, by the swelling of the mucous membrane during a cold, the voice immediately partakes of a more or less nasal quality. . . . In that case the soft palate is sure to be affected so as to be unable by proper contraction to prevent the tone from entering the nose. (P. 165)

Miss Ward may mean that *clausa* results from an obstruction, and that, when the cold has disappeared, the velum remains sluggish. Since this sluggishness, however, would produce the effect of *aperta,* not

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[2] Page references are to the books listed under the authors' names at the end of this article.

clausa, her statement is not completely understandable.

The authors who mention *rhinolalia mixta* treat the *clausa* and *aperta* parts of this condition separately. As noted above, the only exception is Browne and Behnke who believe that, when a cold causes an obstruction, the infection might affect the action of the soft palate. No further discussion of *rhinolalia mixta,* therefore, is necessary.

Although almost all authorities state that *rhinolalia aperta* is excessive nasal sound, there is very little agreement on the actual physical operations that produce it. Most writers say that excessive nasal sound is the result of the soft palate's allowing air and sound to escape into the nasal cavities instead of emitting it through the mouth. Although the soft palate seems to be the organ which determines where the air and sound shall go, theories about the way the velum should move and how tight the closure should be to prevent *rhinolalia aperta* differ widely, as can be readily seen from the following quotations:[3]

A. *How the velum moves*

1. The velum moves up or down to control nasal resonance.

The soft palate . . . should move upwards to close the passage to the nose. (Ward, p. 43)

The soft palate can be elevated so as to close the posterior aperture of the nose completely. (Beatty, p. 16)

Raise the soft palate, and you may completely shut the nostrils. (Emil-Behnke, p. 66)

[Nasality] is due to a lack of flexibility of the soft palate, which is never raised enough entirely to cut off some outflow of breath through the nose. (C. C. Bell, p. 16)

Nasality may be of two types: the so-called lazy nasality, in which the soft palate is lowered and relaxed; or the tense nasality, in which the soft palate is lowered and tightened. (Manser, p. 13)

. . . a slight lowering of the soft palate permits nasal resonance which is advantageous. (Rumsey, p. 36)

Faulty oral habits such as lowered velum. (Fairbanks, pp. 203-4)

[The velum is] only slightly depressed to allow for some resonance through the nasal chambers. (West, Kennedy, Carr, p. 84)

2. The velum bends to control nasal resonance.

The top of the soft palate is arched backwards from its point of junction with the hard palate. (A. M. Bell, p. 30)

The soft palate is raised and bent almost to a right angle. (Nadoleczny, p. 405)

3. The velum is only one part of the closure apparatus that controls nasal resonance.

The greater motility it [posterior faucial wall] shows during phonation and the more pronounced the movements of the gyrus of Passavant are, the better will the upward closure be effected. (Nadoleczny, p. 410)

Both [speech correctionists and physicians] are vitally concerned in adding to the efficiency of the sphincter-action of the upper edge of the superior pharyngeal constrictor muscles. . . . This muscular sheath is partially differentiated into a horse-shoe band which is the gate that opens, closes or modifies the area of this aperture by approximating or abutting this level of the pharyngeal wall to the posterior edge of the velum. Phonetically, its share in this meeting is the important function of the velum. (Blair, p. 196)

[The soft palate must be] sufficiently long to meet the posterior wall of the pharynx (Passavant's pad) in the sphincter-like action of this region that closes the opening between the nose and throat. (Brown, p. 157)

It is easily possible for the velum to raise and lower without opening the velar passage. . . . The velum is very much like the tonque [sic] in its muscular construction in that there are numerous small muscles which radiate in every direction from the palatoglossus muscle. These small radiating muscles enable the velum to contract and expand or spread very much like the tonque [sic]. So as the velar passage opens, the velum may or may not lower but it does contract toward the hard palate. When it closes the velum expands or spreads toward the sides and back of the cavity until it closes the velar passage. (Hathcock, pp. 8-9)

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[3] That the reader may more easily evaluate these statements, the quotations are given at some length in order that as little violence as possible may be done to an authority's declarations by divorcing them from context.

4. The action of the velum in controlling nasal resonance is not clearly understood.

> The movements of the soft palate are . . . complicated, because it not only occupies different positions for different pitches, but the closure assumes different degrees of tightness in the production of the different vowel sounds. (Browne and Behnke, p. 166)

From these quotations its is evident that few authorities agree on exactly how the velum operates. Moreover, this disagreement is not entirely a matter of controversy among speech authorities since each point of view indicated above is subscribed to by at least one medical authority.

B. *How tight the closure should be*

1. The velum should close the passageway into the nose *tightly*.

> The soft palate can be elevated so as to close the posterior aperture of the nose completely. (Beatty, p. 16)
>
> The soft palate . . . should move upwards to close the passage to the nose. . . . The soft palate is not doing its work properly, i.e., some air is escaping through the nose. (Ward, p. 43)
>
> [Nasality] is due to a lack of flexibility of the soft palate, which is never raised enough entirely to cut off some outflow of breath through the nose. (C. C. Bell, p. 16)
>
> However tight the closure of the soft palate may be it is never sufficient to prevent the air in the nasal cavities being thrown into co-vibrations with that in the mouth. (Browne and Behnke, p. 165)
>
> When the soft palate is lowered, the tone is allowed to go into the nose. (Manser, pp. 12-13)
>
> It [the soft palate] covers the internal nasal aperture, and the breath passes altogether through the mouth. (A. M. Bell, p. 30)

2. The velum should *close* the passageway (no mention of how tight).

> The soft palate . . . should move upwards to close the passage to the nose. (Ward, p. 43)
>
> Nasal—a voice quality caused by the failure of the velum to function and close the nasal cavity. (Quirk, p. 4)
>
> The velum is a quite motile structure which . . . rises to the proper level when the nasopharyngeal opening is to be closed. (Blair, p. 197)
>
> It [air] should vibrate in the nose without passing through the nose. (Robbins and Robbins, p. 15)
>
> Nasality of any kind presupposes that the velum is not closing the passageway leading to the nose. . . . This is the condition characteristic of *rhinolalia aperta*. (Cotton, pp. 177-8)
>
> With the soft palate *up*, the nose is shut off from the throat, thereby compelling the tone to pass through the mouth. (Emil Behnke, p. 66)

3. The velum should leave the passageway slightly open.

> While a slight lowering of the soft palate permits nasal resonance which is advantageous, if it is lowered and drawn forward too much a nasal twang is produced which is ugly. (Rumsey, p. 36)
>
> Many vocal artists have learned the trick of allowing the velar valve to remain slightly open on all vowel and semi-vowel sounds. . . . [The velum is] only slightly depressed to allow for some resonance through the nasal chambers. (West, Kennedy, Carr, p. 84)

4. The velum should not leave the passageway open more than a specified amount.

> This persistent speech defect [nasality] is probably due to a leak of air into the nose which may occur if there is an opening left of only a millimeter. (Brown, p. 157)
>
> Imperfect closure in vowels occurs only exceptionally, but M. Schmidt states that the snuffling accent [*rhinolalia*] will not be formed before the aperture has exceeded a space of 18 square mm. (Nadoleczny, p. 405)
>
> If the opening through the nasopharyngeal port is any larger than the outlet through the nostrils, the nares function as *cul-de-sac* resonators, thus giving vowels and semi-vowels a distinctly "nasal" quality. (West, Kennedy, Carr, p. 85)

As with the movement of the velum, there is wide disagreement on the closure of the velum. In this, too, each of the points of view indicated above is subscribed to by at least one medical authority.

Another point on which there seems to be little agreement regarding nasality is the amount of resonance in the nasal cavities both during normal speech and nasality. The following five quotations indicate that sound travels through the closed velum. The first three authorities think that it is a satisfactory condition; the fourth, that too much sound goes through; and the fifth, that for practical purposes, no sound goes through the velum.

> There is a marked addition to his tones [the speaker or singer] through vibrations emitted from the nostrils. . . . The source of this second series of vibrations, emitted from the nostrils, is probably the stretched velum. (West, p. 84)

> However tight the closure of the soft palate may be it is never sufficient to prevent the air in the nasal cavities being thrown into co-vibrations with that in the mouth. (Browne and Behnke, p. 165)

> It [air] should vibrate in the nose without passing through the nose. (Robbins and Robbins, p. 15)

> A "nasal twang" . . . is caused by sending too many vibrations through the nose under the influence of a stiffened pharynx, constricted false vocal cords, or a too rigid soft palate. (Raubicheck, Davis, Carll, p. 227)

> The sound energy issuing from the nose . . . is simply a result of sound transmission through the velum and is totally inadequate in amount to amplify or modify the oral sound. (Cotton, p. 212)

West, Kennedy, and Carr state that the velum should leave the passageway slightly open to allow tone to go into the nose to enrich unnasal sounds.

> Many vocal artists have learned the trick of allowing the velar valve to remain slightly open on all vowel and semi-vowel sounds. . . . [The vellum is] only slightly depressed to allow for some resonance through the nasal chambers, thus enriching the tone color of the vowels and semi-vowel sounds and increasing the volume of the tone by opening additional outlets from the larynx to the outer air. (West, Kennedy, Carr, p. 84)

Rumsey does not go enough into detail to make his point, but it seems that he is referring to the same thing that West, Kennedy, and Carr call "cul-de-sac" resonance.[4]

> The student should realize that nasal resonance should be *around* the nose rather than actually *in* it: when the tone is forced through the nose without an exit that is free in proportion to its volume, a nasal tone is produced. (Rumsey, p. 36)

The above statements give evidence that there is no agreement on the phenomenon of nasal resonance through the velum.

CORRECTION

Even though authorities differ as to the nature of nasality—scope, types, causes and actual physical workings of the organs involved—almost all recommend the same corrective measures.

Practically all those who discuss *rhinolalia aperta* recomend exercises of some sort for the soft palate. Some give their own pet exercises, a few of which sound clever and worthy of attention. In general, the exercises given are for getting the velum to operate properly—loosening it up, strengthening it, and training it. Avery, Dorsey, and Sickels feels that a combination of ear and kinaesthetic sense would be most successful:

> Perhaps the quickest way to overcome this fault [*rhinolalia aperta*] is to train the hearing and the kinaesthetic sense at the same time by consciously directing the tone through the nose and then through the mouth, learning both to hear and feel the difference. (P. 267)

Concerning the best methods for the correction of *rhinolalia clausa,* there is some disagreement. Many authorities say that medical specialists should be consulted and, after they have contributed their help, the speech correctionist should begin his training. Although other authorities may assume that medical specialists should be consulted, many neglect to say so. Miss C. C. Bell, however, makes a surprising statement regarding the correction of *rhinolalia clausa:*

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[4] See the quotation from them under B,4 earlier in this paper.

> Lack of nasal tone is generally due to some physical defect, but it can often be remedied by the practice of the same exercises as are recommended . . . for the correction of undesirable nasality. (P. 17)

Unless Miss Bell is referring to some physical defect other than an obstruction which might produce lack of nasal resonance, it seems that she is expecting surgical wonders from a little practice.

Nadoleczny is the only authority who emphasizes the possibility of treating *rhinolalia clausa,* rather than operating immediately:

> *The treatment* is (1) locally, operative or orthopaedic; (2) therapy of practicing. (P. 410)

Since the separate parts of *rhinolalia mixta* are treated as have already been discussed, there is no need for further word on that point.

SUMMARY

Rhinolalia, a kind of unpleasant voice quality usually associated with too much or too little nasal resonance, is divided into (1) *rhinolalia aperta* (too much nasal resonance) and (2) *rhinolalia clausa* (too little nasal resonance.)

Rhinolalia aperta is caused, most authorities say, by improper action of the soft palate, although no one is exactly certain as to how the soft palate should work, and how much its workings differ among individuals.

Rhinolalia clausa is caused, most writers say, by complete or partial obstruction of the nasal passages.

In correcting these defects in nasal resonance, exercises for relaxing, strengthening, or training the soft palate are used for *rhinolalia aperta.* For *rhinolalia clausa,* a medical specialist should be consulted. He should perform whatever orthopaedic or surgical work is necessary, and the speech correctionist should finish the case by training the patient in speaking.

SUGGESTIONS

Additional investigations of this subject should be made, especially into more distant allied fields in order to clarify vague conceptions about soft-palate operation and the whole subject of normal nasal resonance.

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THE EXTENT OF CORRECTION BY SPEECH THERAPY

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IN WORKING out grade curves for public speaking classes, I found that the average improvement to be expected is 15 per cent (as shown by records of 350 college students in 14 consecutive classes). This made me curious as to how much improvement is accomplished by speech correction. How many defectives, given therapy in the past, would speak normally, if re-examined at least two years after being dismissed from the clinic?

I went back over the clinic files and sorted out those who had had a thorough speech re-examination years after having had speech correction. Many could not be included because they were not seen after being dismissed from the clinic, but it was possible to analyze the follow-up records of 2416 subjects who had had clinical therapy in the past twelve years. It happened that they were equally divided between serious and mild degrees of defectiveness. The average time which elapsed between phoniatric service and follow-up recheck was 5 years, 4 months. The ages of the subjects (at the time of therapy) were from 4 to 37, most of them being between 5 and 8, and 18 and 20 years of age. Because of a lack of available method, no statistics can be offered showing the per cent of improvement. Also the records were exact only in stating whether there was any defect present, so it is impossible to offer a statement as to how many were improved (or made worse). The classification used is that of the nomenclature Committee of the American Speech Correction Association.[1]

THE PERCENTAGE OF SUBJECTS CORRECTED BY SPEECH THERAPY

Type	Number of Subjects	Serious Defect	Mild Defect
Dysphasia (Weakened mental imagery)	50	2	50
Dysarthria (Speech of the paralyzed)	98	87	76
Dysphemia (Variable nervous disorders)	821	6	93
Dyslogia (Difficulty in expression of ideas)	87	83	81
Dyslalia (Defects of articulation)	711	57	42
Dysrhythmia (Defects of rhythm)	63	13	97
Dysphonia (Defects of voice)	586	22	86
All Types	2,416	38	75

Conclusions and implications are as follows:

1. Most severe speech defects are susceptible to correction.
2. In general, out-patient methods are not practical for mild defects, other than

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[1] S. D. Robbins and S. Stinchfield: *A Dictionary of Terms Dealing with Disorders of Speech* (Boston, 1931), pp. 5-6.

in paralysis and defective prudence. Speech therapy is more efficient for mild than for severe paralytic defects. In regard to the dyslogias, it is believed that a diagnostic teaching procedure within the eleemosynaries might handle such problems more conveniently than private clinicians. Furthermore, because of the difficulty of determining whether a feeble-minded child is speaking up to the best of his capacity, the data on dyslogia may not be reliable.

3. Even though there have been tremendous advances in the understanding of speech pathology, this report shows no significant advance in therapy. Although not exactly comparable, Gutzmann, between 1890 and 1898, corrected 72.7 per cent of 1290 severe defectives,[2] in contrast to 75 per cent reported here. Although again not directly comparable, Lemmon's studies of mild defects in 1929 to 1930[3] showed 36.4 per cent corrected (range 7 to 73 per cent), which is close to the 38 per cent reported here (range 2 to 83 per cent).

4. Mild dysphasias are not being corrected. It is believed that the correction of severe dysphasias suffer from an interest in pathology overshadowing application to therapy.

5. It is believed that mild voice and intonation defects are so similar to the way people in general talk that the motivation necessary for correction is lacking.

6. The fewer and less severe are the stuttering blocks, the less likely is correction. This might possibly indicate that should the subject become adjusted to his stuttering, he could no longer expect correction. One might even go so far as to suggest the hypothesis that stutterers should be tantalized until they become so tied up and disgusted that they can be corrected. The evidence against this tenet is that with the present-day mental hygiene approach recommended to teacher and school-teachers many stutterers are relieved with maturation.

7. The findings in regard to articulation point again to the necessity for every elementary teacher being trained in speech correction so that each child, of our 4,000,000 defectives in the grades, can be given six years of speech training. This report indicates that articulatory defects are not, in general, highly susceptible to the ambulative methods of clinics.

8. It is hoped that other larger clinics will find it possible to present similar data in greater detail so that there will be a check on the accuracy of these figures.

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[2] G. S. Hall, *Educational Problems* (1911) II, 114.

[3] A. O. Heck, *Education of Exceptional Children* (1940), p. 295.

AN IMPROVED PSEUDO-PALATE FOR PALATOGRAPHY

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THOUGH palatography is discarded by many because of its inconvenience, it greatly facilitates the treatment of many articulatory cases. Elbert R. Moses, Jr., in his article, "A Brief History of Palatography," has outlined the major developments in the use of palatography for speech experimentation ment. Also the records were exact only in stating whether there was any defect

[1] S. D. Robbins and S. Stinchfield: *A Dictionary of Terms Dealing with Disorders of Speech* (Boston, 1931), pp. 5-6.

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and instruction.[1] Moses has also described in detail the developments in the technique of palatography.[2] The technique commonly used at the present time involves either the use of the very soft dental wax or the use of dental metal. Dental wax soon loses its shape, however, and thereafter does not adhere to the palate well when in use. On the other hand, dental metal holds its shape well and can be used over a long period of time, but it is very difficult to mold and the construction of the pseudo-palate from dental metal requires considerable time and skill.

In the technique used by the present authors neither the dental wax nor metal, but a dental base plate is employed. So far as we can discover, G. Oscar Russell was the first to use base plate extensively in the construction of pseudo-palates.[3] Elbert R. Moses, Jr., has also used it in the process of making pseudo-palates of britannia metal.[4]

The material used is a shellac base plate, which can be molded easily when warmed, but which is strong, which holds its shape well, and which can be used over a considerable period of time. The construction of the pseudo-palate from this material thus involves a rather simple technique requiring little time.

As a guide for those desiring it, the complete procedure in the construction of the pseudo-palate is given as follows:

A. Materials used:[5]

1. Dental trays, sizes 102, 104, and 106. These three trays give satisfactory dental impressions for the purpose of constructing pseudo-palates for children, adolescents, and adults.
2. Dental modeling compound.
3. Plaster of Paris is satisfactory, but Albastone gives a cast which is harder, smoother, and which will stand greater abuse.
4. Dental base plate wax.
5. S. S. White Trial Base Plate. One sheet is required for each pseudo-palate constructed.
6. Carding wax. Black is preferred.
7. A small Bunsen burner or an alcohol lamp is satisfactory. A Hanau alcohol torch is more convenient.
8. A wax spatula.
9. Dental floss.

B. Procedure:

1. In water heated to about 135° Fahrenheit, warm from 1 to 1½ cake of modeling compound. The quantity used will depend upon the size of the mouth in which the impression is to be made. Knead the compound with wet hands, and then glaze the under surface in the Bunsen burner. Press the glazed surface upon the dental tray and peak the center of the compound, leaving a broad, thick rim. For very high palates it is necessary to heap the center of the compound high. Pass the compound through the flame until the entire surface is glazed, and then temper in the warm water for about five seconds.
2. By applying a firm pressure to the bottom of the tray make the impression of the hard palate and upper teeth. Allow the compound to cool for three or four minutes while held in the mouth. Work the dental tray slowly as the compound is removed so that the impression will not be distorted. Examine to make certain that there were no air pockets between compound and palate. Chill the impression in cold water for three or four minutes.
3. Soften a wide strip of dental base plate wax over the Bunsen burner and wrap about the dental impression, forming a container into which plaster of Paris or stone may be poured. The sides should be high enough that the mixture will not spill when vibrated.
4. Mix sufficient plaster to a heavy cream consistency in water. Fill the dental impression with this mixture and vibrate by tapping on the table top.

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[1] QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (1940), 615-25.

[2] *A History of Palatography Techniques.* (Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1940.)

[3] *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 7-8.

[5] All materials used by the authors in the construction of pseudo-palates were obtained from S. S. White Dental Manufacturing Company, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

of many articulatory cases. Elbert R. palatography for speech experimentation

5. Allow to harden for at least one half hour.
6. Place the tray and compound in water warmed to 130° or 135° Fahrenheit and leave until the compound is soft. Then separate the cast from the impression.
7. When the impression is dry sprinkle a small quantity of Talcum powder on the cast and rub over the surface. This prevents the shellac trial base plate from adhering to the cast.
8. Warm a sheet of trial base over a Bunsen burner and mold with moist fingers against the cast of the hard palate.
9. Use the burner to soften small areas so that the plate fits snugly throughout. Trim the base plate with scissors. Cut it short enough that it does not project back onto the soft palate. Trim the plate about the teeth a little at a time so that it fits firmly against the gingival margin of the teeth, but do not allow it to interfere with occlusion.
10. By means of the burner melt a smooth surface of black carding wax upon the base plate. This makes a surface to which powder will adhere readily.
11. A well formed pseudo-palate will adhere to the hard palate with such force that it is difficult to remove. If a premolar or a first molar is absent, a handle may be constructed on the pseudo-palate by molding the trial base into the orifice. An easy method of removing the pseudo-palate is also afforded by imbedding one end of a length of dental floss in the trial base near one side of the appliance. This method gives a convenient means of removing the pseudo-palate and does not interfere with articulation.
12. The authors have found corn starch to be very satisfactory as a palatography powder. Sprinkle a small amount of the starch upon the surface of the pseudo-palate and spread evenly over the surface. After each sound is formed the surface should be wiped clean with a cloth or with soft paper. To avoid annoying gumminess do not sprinkle the powder on the surface when it is damp.
13. When not in use the pseudo-palate should be kept in position in the dental cast.

Excluding the time required for the cast to harden, a little practice makes it possible to construct the pseudo-palate in 10 or 15 minutes. If the appliance becomes distorted it can easily be warmed and readapted.

THE TEACHING OF ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION AS A UNIFIED PROGRAM OF LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION*

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WHEN a Frenchman has drunk too much, he wants to dance, a German to sing, a Spaniard to gamble, an Italian to brag, an Irishman to fight, and an American to make a speech," says Carl Sandburg. The stimulant that has made me bold to speak is, unfortunately, a nonalcoholic one. It is the opportunity to speak to this group of trained teachers of speech on a problem that I have wrestled with for years: the teaching of oral and written communication as a unified program of language instruction.

In doing this, I shall not propose a panacea for our troubles, nor establish infallible generalizations, nor launch a crusade, nor view with alarm. Humbly recognizing that there are few among you who do not know more about the human voice than I do, and none among you who does not know the requirements of his institution better than I do, I shall describe the problem in my school, give my solution, and let you, if you wish, make your own application. One more qualification: I shall not mention national defense or the war. My program has not been created to meet the national emergency. It is no temporary measure. It has evolved from eleven years of teaching in Milton Academy.

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* Delivered before one of the group meetings at the convention of the Eastern Association of Teachers of Speech, April 10, 1942.

Milton is a school of 260 boys. It has been exclusively college preparatory. Our classes are small—from ten to sixteen boys—drawn from a relatively homogenous and cultural background. The master's association with his student is intimate and personal. Since debating and "public speaking" are competently handled by another member of the faculty, my concern has been to raise the general level of speech among the sixty-odd boys in my classes. I want them to be aware of the importance of pause, agreeableness, color, accuracy, emphasis, etc. in speaking and reading. I am not interested in training public speakers; I am interested in training better private speakers.

Since we all have a fellow-feeling for Sisyphus (he was the king of Corinth, you remember, whose wickedness in life was punished in the lower world where he had to roll uphill a marble block which, as soon as it reached the top, always rolled down again) let me describe a few of the blocks, or limitations—the best I can do with what I have to work with—that I have been trying to keep balanced on this hill of oral and written composition.

Block one. There are limitations of time. I believe that a play should be studied as a play with all the regard for oral interpretation that such a belief implies. Yet I do not have time to prepare a production of *Macbeth,* nor of *The Merchant of Venice,* nor of *The Rivals*—plays used by me this year. So I have made wedges to fix the blocks on the mountain. In the eighth grade we use the Welles recording of *The Merchant of Venice,* then act out scenes afterwards. Since I have described this procedure in some detail elsewhere (*The English Leaflet,* January, 1942, Winifred Nash, editor, Dorchester High School For Girls, Boston, Mass.) I shall only mention it here to keep the record straight. My senior class sections have attended professional performances of *Macbeth,* and *The Rivals,* and my tenth grade honor section has seen the playing of *My Town*. There is nothing startling in this program. What I aim to avoid is the "note-grubbing" technique of teaching plays.

Block two. The teaching of poetry from a textbook has limitations. I believe that a poem should be studied as a poem, with all the necessary regard for *oral* interpretation of mood, intention, meaning, etc. If I emphasize "oral" it is because the current agitation over reading—remedial and advanced—and the derivation of meaning from the printed page, has, it seems to me, obscured the truth that subtle nuances of meaning, particularly in poetry, can often only be introduced by a trained reader. The Semanticist, in his dissection of the printed page, arrives at a more limited meaning often than the poet or actor or scholar who combines "instant feeling," scholarly knowledge, and speech training. Let me illustrate. One of the Harvard records is a reading by Robert Speaight, of "The Windhover," by Gerard Hopkins. Hopkins was a Jesuit priest. Speaight, competent actor, a thoughtful and profound reader, owner of a rich voice well adapted to iambic pentameter, a poet and a Catholic, a contributor of poetry criticism to *The Commonweal,* is better qualified than any grammarian to interpret the poetry of Hopkins. "He is not a problem; he is a poet," Speaight said. In this spirit, with a reverence for the sacramental system which too many Protestant commentators might lack, and an experience of authoritarian faith, Speaight makes us feel the exaltation of the poet in the windhover as a symbol of release, and the poet's return to his freely assumed discipline.

Block three. The student himself has obvious limitations. Since psychological limitations, such as lack of confidence; and speech limitations, such as poor diction, you teachers of speech are more keenly aware of than I am, I shall confine myself to one limitation that I can discuss without straining your professional patience: having something to say. Often your method—in teaching public speaking at least—is to create a hypothetical situation, to tell the student to introduce a speaker at a banquet or to address a political meeting. My idea of language instruction is to teach my students to say *something* well rather than *nothing* beautifully. This involves written discourse. It likewise involves oral discourse. Now, let me describe one wedge that I have created to keep that block of what the student has to say balanced on the mountain of oral and written discourse. My twelfth grade boys are launched on a study of their own choosing at the beginning of the year. This year the subjects are: John Buchan, Kenneth Roberts, Jane Austen, Jack London, Henrik Ibsen, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Washington Irving, Willa Cather, Robert Louis Stevenson, O. Henry, W. H. Hudson, satirists, and biographers. The boys read practically everything that their subjects have written. The studies are developed in tutorial conferences with me. Each boy learns the use of reference books, index cards, étc. When he completes his study, it is delivered in the form of an oral report, prepared in conference with me, and organized as an oral report to take thirty minutes, plus ten minutes for questions and answers (an oral examination given by his fellow-students and guests). The boy may use notes, but he may not read his report. During the report notes are taken by other members of the class. These are collected and corrected by me once a week. About a month of class time is usually consumed in the delivery of these talks. Two or three weeks following the conclusion of the talks boys are encouraged to read in the fields suggested by them. Aside from the obvious value of returning the class to the boys at a time of year when they are likely to be fed up with the master's voice, and when the master is starting to repeat himself, this plan of organization for a senior class has such manifest advantages that I shall not take up your time by detailing them. Note, though, that when the student delivers his talk, he has something to say, and he has been instructed in the art of saying it in the best possible way.

Block four, and, lest you grow weary of the figure, the last. The materials of instruction, the tools of the trade, have limitations. Books, for instance. Nothing seems to me more unsound than the study of ballads or Negro spirituals or cowboy songs from textbooks. They are all fundamentally oral mediums and should be studied as such. I believe if Professors Kittredge or Child were alive they would use records to teach ballads and sound trucks to collect them, as does John A. Lomax, whose early collections were made as a Harvard Sheldon fellow. (Yes, Harvard is responsible for "Home on the Range.") Nowadays, except to collate, there appears to be no necessity to read primitive ballads in a textbook. We have the sixteen-inch Library of Congress records and the Keynote albums and the Dyer-Bennett records and numerous miscellaneous titles. There are a large number of good ballad recordings available for class use.

Records, themselves, however, as tools of this unified program have limitations. Some are useful for educational purposes; some are not. We test all records before purchasing them. Again, let me illustrate. We wished to purchase a recording of *Macbeth*. The two available are the Orson Welles-Mercury Theater recording and the Evans-Anderson Recordrama. Recently I analyzed both of them, asking merely: Can this be used for teaching purposes? The advertising reads, "The Recordrama provides illustrations to set the scene and mood, continuity to tell the story between the records, and superb acting to recreate the characters of the plays in their most exciting moments." Is this accomplished? Not by a jugful, in my estimation. These aims must be achieved by the voice itself if the Recordrama is to be useful for teaching purposes. Why? Because, using the words of the introduction which explains why plays can't be recorded in their entirety, "it is neither practical nor necessarily desirable" that fifteen or twenty students should each be provided with a separate Recordrama to set the scene and mood. Are these accomplished by the recording then? Again, no. The witches' scene, designed to set the supernatural mood of the play, gives only an effect of confusion. The text omissions accelerate the tempo to such an extent that before you've had a chance to collect your impressions you are listening to Lady Macbeth reading Macbeth's letter. Furthermore, most of the records open and close with music, which contributes nothing to your enjoyment or your understanding of the play. When the porter knocks, in record five, even the dramatic effect of the knock is broken by more music. My conclusions? This Recordrama is designed for the solitary enjoyment of Evans-Anderson lovers. It has no educational use for us. The donation of the royalties from it, by Mr. Evans and Miss Anderson, to the War Relief Fund, is the best thing about it.

Well, then, how about the Welles *Macbeth?* Truth to say, I was once prejudiced against this recording, despite Mr. Welles' pioneering work in making play recordings for educational use. I have changed my position. The use of the narrator gives unity to the recording, a unity which the illustrations and written narrative could not give the Evans-Anderson recording. Consider once more the witches' scene. Here a supernatural mood is created by the use of weird sound effects. The Welles *Macbeth* is the recording of a play; the Recordrama is a recording of Mr. Evans and Miss Anderson. Take your choice. We wanted a play, so we chose the Welles.

Now I share with Sisyphus a fellow-feeling, because those blocks, representing the best I can do with what I have to work with, represent still only partial achievement. Student, materials, teacher—all share limitations. Of this I am well aware, but at least give me credit for trying. As a language teacher, subject to all the demands an English teacher in particular is subject to, I at least am trying to put the gold from our purse of speech back into active circulation.

FACTORS RELATED TO ACHIEVEMENT AND IMPROVEMENT IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

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DURING the past few years, a number of studies have been reported that indicated relationships between certain traits of personality and achievement in public speaking. Murray[1] reported that the better speakers enrolled in speech classes at the University of Denver were significantly higher in dominance and self-sufficiency than were the poor speakers, and that the scores on the test of introversion indicated that the two groups were at opposite poles. Knower[2] found that students ranking in the highest 25 per cent on the basis of teachers' ratings of general effectiveness made significantly higher scores on the Knower Speech Attitude Scale than did speakers whose ratings placed them in the lowest 25 per cent. A study by Chenoweth[3] revealed that well adjusted speakers tended to be extroverted and dominant, and that poorly adjusted speakers inclined to submissiveness and introversion. Other studies, particularly those of Moore,[4] Rose[5] and Gilkinson,[6] have shown that as a result of speech training, changes in personality traits occur. On the other hand, Hayworth[7] reported that improvement in speaking did not seem to be related to intelligence, personality traits, vocabulary, or health.

The purpose of the present study is threefold: 1) to investigate possible relationships between such factors as personality traits, attitudes toward speech, or mental objectivity in self-evaluation and proficiency in speaking; 2) to determine whether there exists any relation between educational achievement, intelligence, or knowledge of contemporary affairs and attainment in speaking; and 3) to investigate the relationship between all the above named factors and improvement in speaking.

PROCEDURE

At the beginning of the second semester, February 10, 1942, the one hundred and twenty students enrolled in the required fundamentals speech classes were given the Knower Speech Attitude Scale and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Previously, under the direction of K. C. Pratt, they had taken the freshman placement examinations that are sponsored by the National Council on Education. These examinations consist 1) of two tests of reasoning ability, one based on quantitative reasoning, the other on general linguistic reasoning, 2) of tests on educational achievement (the test scores utilized in this study include those on literary acquaintance, vocabulary, and social studies) and 3) of a test on acquaintance with contemporary affairs.

One month after the beginning of the course, as part of the regular work, a four-minute speech was assigned to be delivered, first in class, and two weeks later in competition with speeches by students from other sections. Two days after the first round of competition, the speech was again delivered in competition with a different group of competitors. Following this first speech by exactly one month, a second speech was called for, the delivery of which followed the same pattern, once in class, and twice in competition two weeks later.

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[1] Elwood Murray, "A Study of Factors Contributing to the Mal-Development of the Speech Personality," *Speech Monographs,* III (1936), 95-108.

[2] Franklin H. Knower, "A Study in Speech Attitudes and Adjustment," *Speech Monographs,* V (1938), 130-203.

[3] Eugene C. Chenoweth, "The Adjustment of College Freshmen to the Speaking Situation," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (December, 1940), 585-588.

[4] Glenn E. Moore, "Personality Changes Resulting from Training in Fundamentals of Speech," *Speech Monographs,* II (1935), 56-59.

[5] Forrest H. Rose, "Training in Speech and Changes in Personality," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (April, 1940), 193-196.

[6] Howard Gilkinson, "Indexes of Change in Attitude and Behavior among Students Enrolled in General Speech Courses," *Speech Monographs,* VIII (1941), 23-33.

[7] Donald Hayworth, "A Search for Facts on the Teaching of Public Speaking, II," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, XXVI (February, 1940), 31-38.

The one hundred and twenty speakers in each round were divided into sections of ten speakers each, and the speakers in each section were rated on a twenty-eight item,[8] four-point scale by two critics who were upper-class majors or minors in the department of speech. Each speaker also rated his own performance on the same scale immediately upon concluding his speech. The speakers and the critics were so rotated that none of the twenty-four critics rated the same speaker twice.

The reliability of the critics' ratings was determined by correlating the ratings of one half the critics with those of the other half. The correlations were .61±.030 for the first set of speeches, and .60±.031 for the second. By application of the Spearman-Brown formula, the reliability of the pooled ratings for each set was found to be .75 and .76 respectively. The reliability of the self-evaluations was determined by correlating the ratings of self in the first round with those in the second round. The coefficient of correlation was .94±.006.

RESULTS

The personality inventory scores and the Knower Speech Attitude scores of the best thirty speakers in the first set of speeches were compared with the corresponding scores of the poorest thirty. Table I indicates that the poor speakers were differentiated from the good speakers, to a degree that meets Fisher's test of "Significance,"[9] by tests of dominance and confidence, and by the Knower Attitude Scale. None of the differences, however, meets Fisher's test of the "very significant." In general, though, the data agree with earlier studies which reveal that good speakers differ from poor speakers in dominance, emotional stability, confidence, and sociability.

An aspect of the speaker's personality that needs to be studied and, if possible, measured, is what might be termed his mental objectivity. The emphasis upon mental hygiene in speech courses, the adaptation of psychotherapeutic techniques to the fundamentals course, and the basic problem of changing crystallized behavior patterns which every speech teacher faces, emphasize the importance of obtaining objective data that will reveal in some way the speaker's attitude toward his own performance. Woolbert early recognized that objective self-criticism was fundamental to learning new speech skills.

In this study the problem of measuring each speaker's self-evaluation was approached by obtaining a self-evaluation quotient. This quotient was obtained by dividing the average of the four ratings of each speech for each speaker by the speaker's rating of his own performance. The 30 highest-ranking speakers were then compared with the 30 poorest on the basis of the self-evaluation quotients. The marked tendency of the poor speakers to over-evaluate their performances is shown by the fact that 93.9 per cent in the first speeches accounted for the self-evaluation quotient of .82. On the other hand, the good speakers placed a more severe estimate upon their performances, the average self-evaluation quotient being 1.15. The critical ratio in terms of the standard error of the difference between the two means was 10. The differentiation, therefore, is very significant.

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[8] Representative items were:

1. Did the speaker's body seem alert and vigorous?
   markedly (4), slightly (3), hardly at all (2), not at all (1).
2. Did the speaker look directly at the audience?
   nearly all the time (4), much of the time (3), hardly any (2), not at all (1).
3. Did the materials in the speech interest the listener?
   not at all (1), slightly (2), considerably (3), very much (4).
4. Did the speech bring new facts to the attention of the audience?
   none (1), hardly any (2), quite a few (3), a great many (4).
5. Were there concrete, specific materials in the speech?
   none (1), a few (2), quite a few (3), many (4).
6. Was the voice pleasant in quality?
   not at all (1), hardly (2), quite (3), very (4).
7. Was the rate of speaking pleasing?
   not at all (1), hardly (2), somewhat (3), very (4).
8. Was the speaker nervous?
   very (1), a little (2), hardly any (3), not at all (4).
9. Was the speaker friendly and affable?
   not at all (1), slightly (2), somewhat (3), very (4).

[9] J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods* (1936), p. 62.

TABLE I

Comparison of the Average Inventory and Attitude Scores of the Thirty Best and Thirty Poorest Speakers

	Best Speakers Mean	Poorest Speakers Mean	CR[10]	Chances in 100
Knower Attitude	330.32	300.08	2.30	99
Neurotic Tendency	38.04	45.24	1.00	84
Dominance	64.48	48.00	2.26	99
Confidence	36.64	52.68	2.03	98
Sociability	54.92	42.08	1.68	95

The evidence obtained from the second set of speeches is no less convincing. In spite of the fact that much instruction given between the first and second speech assignments had been devoted to the development of critical insight and objectivity, 72.4 per cent of the poorest group still overevaluated themselves. The good speakers, on the other hand, continued to underevaluate themselves, only 20 per cent of them failing to do so. The average self-evaluation quotient for the good speakers was 1.10; that for the poor speakers was .79. The critical ratio was 8. Again the differentiation approximates certainty. These findings, like those of Shen,[11] suggest that in the case of the poor speakers a defense mechanism may be at work. Likewise, the inclination to overestimate the self is highly consistent with the individual, particularly in those areas where the performance is inferior. The superior speakers, on the other hand, have no need of bolstering their opinions of self, and hence are more critical in their self-estimates.

It has been easy during recent years for the reader of journals and monographs in the speech field to get the impression that the primary purpose of speech education is to improve the personality, with "personality" somewhat narrowly defined. Research, other than studies in rhetoric and speech science, has been concentrated upon personality traits, attitudes, adjustment, mental health, emotional responsiveness, and other aspects of human behavior, ordinarily associated with "feeling" and "emotion." So far as the writer knows, few studies concerned with such phases of personality as intelligence, educational achievement, amount of information possessed by the speaker, or ability to reason, have been reported.

It is of particular interest, therefore, that insofar as the speakers included in this study may be representative, such factors as intelligence, vocabulary, educational achievement, and knowledge of contemporary affairs have a more consistent and a more significant differen-

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[10] The more conservative formula for the denominator, $\sqrt{n-1}$, was used in all calculations.

[11] E. Shen, "The Validity of Self-Estimate," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVI (February, 1925), 104-107.

tiating value than do personality traits and speech attitudes.

Table II gives the results of the intelligence and educational achievement test scores of the thirty best and thirty poorest speakers.

The differentiating value of four of the tests meets Fisher's test of the "significant" and one meets the test of the "very significant." These data suggest that the investigation of such problems as improvement in reasoning, gain in knowledge of contemporary affairs, etc., which may accompany instruction in speech, are no less important than are investigations of changes in "personality."

The data related to the speakers' improvement in their second speeches are neither consistent nor very significant. The group as a whole made an average gain of 33.06 points on the rating scale, the average score on the first speech being 308.24±3.77 and that on the second being 341.00±3.04. The standard error of the difference between the two means was 3.64, and the critical ratio, therefore, 9.06, the correlation between the scores on the first and the second speeches being .46±.038. The gain was accounted for by 78 per cent of the speakers, 22 per cent showing either no gain or a loss in total score.

A comparison of the attitude, inventory, and educational test scores of the 30 speakers who made the greatest gain with those of the 30 speakers who made the least gain revealed no significant differences. In no case was a critical ratio as large as one.

By only one device were the 30 highest gainers differentiated from the 30 speakers with the lowest gain. That device was the self-evaluation quotient. The average self-evaluation quotient for the speakers making the greatest improvement was 1.25 while that of the ones making the least improvement was .76, the critical ratio being 12. The excessive overevaluation of self manifested by the nongaining group was accounted for by 76 per cent of that group, while, on the other hand, 71 per cent of the group making the greatest gain underevaluated themselves. In view of the consistency with which both the poor speakers and those who make little improvement overevaluate themselves, one arduous task that the speech teacher faces is the development of critical insight.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF THE AVERAGE PERCENTILE SCORES ON THE TESTS OF INTELLIGENCE (LINGUISTIC REASONING AND MATHEMATICAL REASONING), LITERARY ACQUAINTANCE, CONTEMPORARY AFFAIRS, VOCABULARY, AND SOCIAL STUDIES

	Best Speakers Mean	Poorest Speakers Mean	CR	Chances in 100
Linguistic Reasoning	67.72	46.65	4.02	100
Mathematical Reasoning	42.41	52.23	1.45	93
Contemporary Affairs	57.45	40.26	2.42	99
Literary Acquaintance	65.97	48.75	2.35	99
Vocabulary	60.07	44.62	2.51	99
Social Studies	60.11	44.36	2.28	98

SUMMARY

A comparative study of the scores made by good and poor speakers on tests of intelligence, educational achievement, inventories of personality traits and speech attitudes, and a comparison of their self-evaluation quotients revealed the following facts:

1. Tests of intelligence and educational achievement more consistently and more significantly differentiated the poor speakers from the good speakers than did inventories of speech attitudes and personality traits.
2. Poor speakers were significantly inferior to the good speakers in linguistic intelligence, in literary acquaintance, in vocabulary, and in knowledge of the social studies and contemporary affairs.
3. The poor speakers consistently overevaluated their own performances while the good speakers underevaluated theirs.
4. The speakers making the least improvement from one performance to a second significantly overevaluated their performances.
5. The speakers making the greatest improvement did not differ significantly from those making the least, in respect to intelligence, educational achievement, personality traits or speech attitudes.

THE RELATION OF ORAL READING TO REMEDIAL READING IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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TEN years ago, as an outgrowth of a course in education, I wrote a monograph on the status of oral reading. In the study, I tried to show that there were two schools of thought as to the value of oral reading in the curricula of our elementary and secondary schools: one, followed mainly by educators, held that oral reading was a means to the eventual end of establishing efficient silent reading habits; and the other held that oral reading was not a tool subject at all, but an end in itself, an art whose techniques were worth learning.

When my monograph came out, I modestly admitted to myself that I was a torch bearer. I was sure that our friends in Education would see that they had inadvertently thrown an ace into the discard, and, on the other hand, I was confident that many candidates for advanced degrees in speech would, through research, give our beliefs on the value of oral reading something solid to rest upon. Last summer I undertook another investigation to find out how oral reading had been faring in the public schools during the past ten years. To my humiliation what did I find? Nothing! Sweltering August days, I sat in the library looking up references that seemed to be remotely related to the subject. I consulted specialists, in the remedial reading field but received very few helpful suggestions. Since my research and appeals bore so little fruit, I undertook to see what I could find on remedial reading in the upper grade levels. In spite of limited library facilities, I have read this study and that study, remedial projects for small high schools and for large high schools, figures showing the reading lag in high school ad infinitum. It would not take a discerning research worker to find that high school social science, mathematics, and science teachers are still having to spoon-feed their pupils, and that literature teachers are still having to tell all too many what a poet has said, because these pupils have not learned somewhere along the line to translate the black marks on white pages of text-books into the findings, experiences, yearnings, ambitions, meannesses of men, from recorded time until today.

I believe most of us agree, first, that with our present setup the educability of a child is in direct proportion to his ability to get meaning from the printed page; and second, that we have not yet found all the answers. The subject of reading demands the best thinking of educators in all fields. Too many high school and college teachers draw their robes about themselves and say dramatically, "My students can't read," and with that pronouncement dismiss the subject. People in the field of Education have made and are making a sincere effort to find the solution. Sometimes they have followed the wrong scents and have had to retract, but some of their findings have been worth-while. It seems to me that it is time for us in speech to discover if we have contributions to make, and, if we have, to make them.

My purpose in finding as much as I could of aims, plans, successes and failures of projects in remedial reading was to find as specifically as I could what others believed to be factors in our colossal failure. So far as I could, I confined my reading to the high-school level, but I found some rather significant investigations at lower levels.

In the first place, I found that there was not much uniformity in the conception of what remedial reading encompasses. One recent study, "An Oral Reading Survey as a Teaching Aid," by Mable Madden and Marjorie Pratt is to be found in *The Elementary English Review* for April, 1941.[1] The test material used was from the science, and social science fields; the errors tabulated were (1) mispronunciations, (2) repetitions, (3) omitted words, (4) added words, (5) reversals; and the conclusions reached were "That many pupils in a given grade (three through nine) need social studies and science material one or two grade levels below their grade placement." This indicates an idea of what people look for in the hard and fast surveys. To go through study after study and give the purpose and aims would be profitless and dull; a composite picture of such aims would be something like this: to extend the vocabulary, to increase reading rate, to develop adequate eye span, to improve pronunciation, to encourage leisure reading, to establish pleasant student teacher relations. All of these appeared superficial to me and to be far from an answer; then I came upon a paragraph in Chapter VI of *The National Elementary Principal, Seventeenth Yearbook*[2] which seemed to me sane:

> In overcoming the deficiencies in reading, it is essential to deal with basic causes rather than with symptoms alone. While the first step is to discover existing difficulties by means of adequate tests and careful observation, the remedial program itself must often go beyond the mere drilling of children on the phases of reading in which they are weak. The causes of weakness may be found in the child himself, in his school or out-of-school environment, or in both. In any case, every available means should be used to bring about a satisfactory adjustment between the child and his total environment, giving due regard to his physical, social, and emotional needs as well as to his specific needs in reading.

It seems to me that in the past people have tended to mistake symptoms for causes. They have concluded that a child was a remedial case because he had regressive eye movements, too narrow an eye span, a slow, halting rate; stumbled on words; formed the word with his lips, when a matter of fact he did all of these things because for some reason, which should be possible to be determined, he had not yet learned to read. In my opinion most of our standardized reading tests reveal symptoms rather than causes of reading difficulties.

Certainly to be able to read, one must have a vocabulary adequate to the material to be read. Why does one child have the words with which to read material far above his grade, and another, no less intelligent perhaps, have difficulty reading below his grade? I don't' know, but I suspect that the environment of the first child was such that he grew up on good conversation and stories; while the other grew up on "pass the butter." Of course, other things being equal, the first child has a head start over the second from the first day they enter that mysterious world called *school*. Furtherance, our theoretical child may have two other advantages (for that is the way fate seems to work in this world): he probably has a rich experience from which to read, and he may have a much better ear for the sounds from which words are composed.

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[1] Mable Madden and Marjorie Pratt, "An Oral Reading Survey as a Teaching Aid," *Elementary English Review*, XVIII (April, 1941), No. 4, pp. 122-126.

[2] *The National Elementary Principal—Seventeenth Yearbook*, XVII (July, 1938), No. 7, p. 387.

For the child with a poor ear, I believe that we in oral reading have a contribution to make. At least we can tell whether he is getting a word both in meaning and sound if he says it orally in context, when we cannot be sure, even by means of questions, when he reads it silently. We all probably have words in our reading vocabulary that we never attempt to pronounce, but our claim on them is very slight until they flow trippingly from our tongues. One's respect for words, and his enjoyment of them, is to a large degree conditioned by his ability to say them. Children in the same family often show differences in their ability to pick up words, and even when they have picked them up, to say them accurately. These differences may be due to differences in memory for combinations of sounds or in hearing acuity. Phonetic drill is essential for children handicapped in these respects, and a work type oral reading period should be a good place for that training.

Aside from a lack of knowledge of words, there is another telling factor that keeps children from getting meanings from the printed page, and that is phrasing. I often think, and I am afraid I have been guilty of voicing in extreme cases, the comment that some people who read orally might as well be reading down a column of words in a speller, as to be saying the words assembled into a sentence. We do not know nearly so much about phrasing as we should, and there is need for research on the subject. However, I think we all agree that there is right and wrong to the way that a sentence must be broken if it is to yield its thought. On the other hand, I do not think that a person who breaks up a sentence correctly can fail to get the thought. Furthermore, I believe that the only way phrasing can be taught is orally; and the only way we can be sure that a child has extracted the complete meaning from a sentence is when he proves it by reading orally. That proof, to my mind, is worth more than the correct answers to 20 questions such as "How many brothers did Mary have?" and "Which one jumped in the river?"

In my examination of remedial reading projects, I found some recognition of the fact that phrasing is essential for efficient reading. One writer said it could be taught either by oral or silent reading, and phrased a sentence to show how he would teach it silently. This was the sentence: "This may be an oral exercise, or the division may be indicated on paper by underlining each group of words that can be read with a single eye fixation"; and this is the way he phrased it: "This may be / an oral exercise / or the division / may be indicated / on paper / by underlining each group / of words / that can be read / with a single eye fixation." Of course the writer's guess is as good as mine, but it seems to me that such minute phrasing is little better for comprehension than is breaking up a sentence into its individual words.

I wish I had some statistical evidence

definition of remedial reading, as a factor in the "adjustment between the child and his total environment."

From the foregoing discussion, it can readily be seen that there is great need for research in the areas of remedial reading and oral reading. Teachers of speech, because of their background, interests, and experience have real contributions to make and should accept the challenge to conduct investigations in these important educational fields.

PRACTICAL PROCEDURES IN COACHING HIGH-SCHOOL DEBATE*

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DEBATE OBJECTIVES

PROBABLY no other generation in history has been thrust so deeply into politics as your generation. Whether you like it or not, the things you will eat and wear and do, the happiness that the world outside yourselves may bring you, and to a certain extent your personal destiny, will be governed by how you think and what you do about public affairs."[1] Thus spoke the "Sage of Emporia," William Allen White, to a graduating class in 1936. If this is true, the need for courses that give the students knowledge of current events, the ability to think clearly and to speak clearly and forcibly on vital questions is greater today than ever before. Most of the evils of the world today are due to the inability of the people to think clearly. Any activity which will develop that ability warrants our attention. Debating is such an activity, providing it is directed in such a way that it achieves three fundamental objectives: (1) Trains students in logical argument; (2) trains students in extempore speaking; (3) trains students in proper techniques of investigation and analysis of public questions. To the extent that debating achieves these goals, it is good debating and certainly deserves a place as an educational technique. Phillip M. Hicks of Swarthmore put it in this way:

> Not knowledge but thought is the end of education. Educational values lie not so much in knowledge of subjects in themselves as in the processes of investigation, judgment, and expression by which the debater strives to win an audience to his opinion. This end can be attained only when the student is working with material which is of genuine interest both to himself and to his audience. The discussion of such a question, if engaged in voluntarily, enlists the earnestness and enthusiasm of the student in an effort to learn and weigh the facts, to balance evidence, and to make the results of his own thoughts clear and interesting to others. Those are truly educational values.[2]

In order to achieve the desired ends many different forms of debating have been devised. Any one of them when properly used will serve the aims of education as Professor Hicks conceived them. Some coaches confine their teams to one type of debating, but many others use different types during the course of the season to lend variety to the program.

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* This is the sixth of a series of articles on the teaching of speech that has been prepared under the auspices of the Secondary School Committee of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. For further information on this series, See the JOURNAL, October, 1942, pages 356 and 360.

[1] Lew Sarett and W. T. Foster, *Modern Speeches on Basic Issues* (1939), p. 1.

[2] A. M. Drummond, ed., *Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools* (1925), p. 177.

TYPES OF DEBATE

A. The Standard Debate.

The standard type is a contest in which two teams, each consisting of two or three members, debate a formal proposition based on a topic of current interest. The debate is divided into two parts—the constructive and rebuttal. The affirmative opens the debate and then the sides alternate until each debater has appeared in the constructive part. Then the negative opens the rebuttal and again the sides alternate until each speaker has appeared. The usual time allowed for two-men teams is ten minutes in construction and five minutes in rebuttal. When three are on each team the usual time is eight minutes in construction and four minutes in rebuttal. At the end of the debate a decision is rendered by a critic judge or by three judges. This standard debate setup has been altered many times and in many ways to meet different situations and to remove some of the possibilities of evil that exist in standard debates.

B. Cross-question Debate.

The cross-question debate is one of the widely used variations. A description of this type, as given by O'Neill and Cortright, is as follows:

1. The first affirmative speaker presents the entire affirmative case. Length of speech twenty minutes.
2. The first negative speaker presents the entire negative case in an equal time.
3. The first affirmative speaker (or in three-man teams the second speaker) comes to the platform and for ten minutes is cross-questioned by the second negative speaker. Answers must be short and definite and the chairman acts as arbiter of any objections raised by either questioner or questioned.
4. The first negative speaker (or second negative) returns to the platform for similar cross questioning by the second affirmative speaker.
5. The second negative (or third in three-man teams) gives ten-minute rebuttal and summarizing speech.
6. The second (or third) affirmative performs similar duties for his case in a ten-minute final speech.[3]

C. The Split-Team Debate.

This type of contest is described by Lahman in his *Debate Coaching* as follows:

> Suppose high schools A and B are going to debate at B. Each school may have been working on the question for some time. Prior to the debate, perhaps an hour or longer, one of A's debaters meets with two of B's debaters and the three constitute a team. Similarly, one of B's debaters and two of A's make up the other team. The respective sides are usually agreed upon previously. In the ensuing debate, high school A does not oppose high school B. Each school is represented on each team. It is possible, of course, to have equal division of team members by having just two on a team, one from A and one from B.[4]

D. Open-Forum Debate.

This may be used with any form of debate, preferably one in which no decision is rendered. It simply allows members of the audience to ask questions of either team after the debate is finished. Questions should be directed to the chairman and he will see that the proper person answers.

E. Conclusion.

These are but a few of the many different forms of debating that have been developed. Each one has some merit and would make a contribution to the development of the debater. Any director trying to develop good thinkers and good speakers will use these variations for their own merits and for the variety they will lend to the program.

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[3] J. M. O'Neill and R. L. Cortright, *A Manual of Debate and Oral Discussion* (1931), p. 55.

[4] C. P. Lahman, *Debate Coaching* (1936), p. 30.

The Coach and the Squad

Selecting the Squad

In selecting the personnel of the squad one should seek students with two fundamental characteristics: intellectual superiority and physical stamina. It is my opinion that debating is an activity pretty largely for the intellectual aristocrat. There are several reasons. In the first place, in order to do an adequate job of debating he should have a better than average mind. In the second place, if he is to take on the added burdens that are entailed in participating in an active debating program, he will of necessity have to be a better than average student to prevent his other academic courses from suffering. I realize that by confining debating to the superior student we lay ourselves open to the charge that it cannot be justified academically because it benefits so few. On the other hand, we see in all modern schools classes for the slow or backward student in almost every line of study. Certainly if such a student deserves attention, the superior student also should have special consideration. Furthermore, debating gives these superior students an outlet for their surplus energy, because most of the classes in the modern school are designed for the average, and the superior student does the work with ease.

Since debating imposes such a tremendous task on the debater, he must, in addition to a superior intellectual ability, have a superior physical stamina. In some of the large high schools debating entails hours of labor in excess of regular classroom routine. It also necessitates considerable traveling in order to secure opposition for practice and to get to the regularly scheduled debates.

Therefore, two fundamental characteristics that debaters must possess are superior intellectual equipment and superior physical equipment. If one limits candidates to those having these qualifications, the problem of selection in some schools will not be difficult because in a small high school the number meeting the requirements will be about right for the squad. In the larger schools it will be necessary to hold tryouts. Whether one has tryouts or not, squad selection will have to be preceded by an intensive selling program, at least until the debate tradition has been built up. One of the best mediums available is the local school paper. Stories can be given to the paper telling of the activities of debating, the record of the school, opportunities available both for learning and for fun in securing a place on the squad. If possible it would be well to have an announcement made at a student assembly, or over the public address system, concerning the tryouts.

The first meeting of the coach with the aspirants should be given over to a discussion of what he expects from them and what they in turn may expect from debate. The coach should not fail to mention that, along with the work entailed, the participants will receive a great deal of enjoyment. It also may be pointed out that there is a certain amount of prestige from membership on the squad.

If possible, the coach should hold individual conferences with the new candidates prior to their tryout speeches. This is suggested in order that the coach will have a better understanding of the personality and background of the candidate and can better judge the speaking performance in the light of this knowledge. There are many things that the coach should consider in addition to the individual's speaking ability. He should have a knowledge of the character of the student. He should know whether that student has a co-operative turn of mind, is receptive to criticism, is willing and anxious to learn. If a student has all of these characteristics, even though he may not at the moment be doing an acceptable job of speaking in the tryout, it may be advisable to keep him on the squad and allow him to develop there rather than to refer him to another class and allow him to lose interest.

The speeches in a tryout should be on a subject with which the student is familiar. Certainly he can better show his powers of persuasiveness by dealing with a subject concerning which he has some knowledge than if he were arbitrarily forced to defend or attack the current debate question concerning which he as yet has very little knowledge. A speech of three to five minutes in length should be sufficient for gaining an idea of the candidate's ability. In judging these tryout speeches all the things that are ordinarily considered as criteria in an ordinary speech contest should be applied. The appearance, poise, personality of the speaker, his choice of words, and sentence structure, as well as speech composition and the usual aspects of delivery, certainly should be considered. It should be repeated, however, that even though a candidate might be weak in some of these things, the coach, considering the other factors that he knows regarding the student, might elect to retain him as a member of the squad. The ideal situation for the selection of debaters would be for the coach to make an actual case study of each student aspiring to membership. Most coaches, however, are so busy with the multitudinous tasks imposed upon them that they have no time to make a complete investigation of the aspirants.

These, then, are the characteristics that the debate coach should seek in his debaters: intellect, physical stamina, character, personality, speaking skill, cooperative attitude, a willingness to work, and a willingness to accept criticism.

Suggestions for the Coach

The coach should avoid doing too much for his debaters. Too many help their students so much that they do very little thinking for themselves but merely regurgitate their coach's ideas. The debaters will be better, both from a winning and from a developmental standpoint, if they are allowed to do their own research, think their own thoughts, and formulate their own cases. The coach's job is to give the students guidance in speaking, reading, research, case, and argument, but not to do the work for them. If we are to justify debating as an educational technique, we can coach debate in no other way. This does not mean that the coach should do no research. He should do sufficient research on the question and in related fields to enable him to evaluate the arguments advanced by his debaters and to offer guidance on where to go for material. In addition to his speech training, the best background that a coach may have to aid him in debate is a good knowledge of the social sciences: history, political science, economics, etc.

In directing research it may be necessary to decide on a division of labor. Most questions that are debated today entail the study of such a large amount of material that no one debater could cover all of it. Therefore, it is advisable to assign certain books and periodicals to each individual and to have that individual be responsible for getting the information to the squad. The large amount of material available on a subject, and the desire on the part of the coach and squad for a short cut to the information, has given rise in recent years to the so-called debate bureaus, who will supply hand-picked material, even cases and speeches if desired, to anyone for a price. But if the coach depends on these sources, he not only in many instances will have a poor case, but will remove one of the main justifications for a debating program: namely, that it trains students in methods of research and develops logical thinking. On the other hand, such books as the Reference Shelf Series, which are a compilation of articles by leading authorities on the subject, are valuable and sometimes necessary because of the lack of library facilities.

Some definite system of note taking must be established so that all notes taken by the squad members will be uniform and interchangeable. Nearly all squads now use the card system, usually the 3 x 5 or 4 x 6 cards. These should be kept in an indexed filing box in order that they may be readily located when needed. If the debater will initial each card that he completes they will not be lost in the exchange of material. The card must contain information concerning the source of the material, the authority, and the specific phase of the question to which it applies.

Strategy

Certainly it is the duty of the coach to instruct debaters in types of strategy that can legitimately be used in a debate. Of course there are various kinds of strategy. One has been defined as "using one's resources in such a way as to gain an unexpected advantage over opponents."[5] This kind has been notoriously misused by debate coaches in their desire to win decisions. Such practice is to be regretted, and such a type of "strategy" certainly should not be employed. But there are legitimate strategic devices that do not take unfair advantage of an opponent, but rather serve to bring out the strength or weakness of an opponent's position. They are:

1. Admitting all irrefutable points. Many teams go to great lengths in attempting to refute arguments that cannot be refuted. Many times the opposition will have spent considerable time in building up arguments that your team can and ought to admit. By at once admitting such arguments you make the time wasted that was spent on them and narrow the discussion to its essential features.

2. "Assuming for the sake of argument." This is good technique that can be used by either side in the debate and usually is best used in the later stages. It is very effective when the debater can temporarily lay aside his own contentions and show that, even accepting the opposition's contentions, it still would not be a good thing.

3. Exposing inconsistencies and misrepresentation. The coach should have his students well drilled on what constitutes good evidence and good authority, and they should be so well versed in the material that they can point out misrepresentations made by the opposition. They should know the background of various authorities in order that they can point out the reasons that might prejudice certain people for or against the proposition. If a team can show that an authority used is not unbiased or is not in a position to give expert opinion, it will tend to discount other evidence that might be given and will weaken the whole case of the opposition.

4. The question-asking device. This is used to force the opposition to go into the details of their proposition and explain each one. This is often used by the negative to get the affirmative to waste time explaining their proposal instead of advancing their case as they should be doing. The coach should train his team not only in using but in meeting this device. It can usually be met by lumping all questions together in two or three general headings and answering them. Sometimes the questions can be handled by saying, "To answer these questions individually would waste your time and mine, but if the opposition and the audience will listen, these will be answered in the course of the debate."

Sportsmanship

The coach should work to develop sportsmanship in his debaters and should set a good example by his own conduct. As yet, too many of us have not learned to accept decisions with a smile, whether they are right or wrong. Both the team and the coach indulge in discourtesies to the winning team. Because of this conduct after the decision has been rendered, a great many debates end in hard feelings between the two schools. The coach formulates excuses to account for defeats. He often engages the judge or judges in a discussion of the decision and tries to convince them that his team won. He ridicules the judge to his team and supporters. I know of one instance when the judge was forced to submit to a severe cross examination for more than an hour after his decision was rendered, simply because the losing team refused to accept the verdict in good grace. I am heartily in accord with the practice now in vogue of having the judge explain the reasons for his decision after it has been rendered; but I can see no justification for forcing a judge, after he has given his reasons, to submit to questions and discourtesies simply because the losing team is too unsportsmanlike to accept the decision. Judges are not infallible. Sometimes they make mistakes, but such errors should be accepted with courtesy by the losers, who should realize that to err is human.

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[5] Lahman, *op. cit.*, p. 171.

We rarely see or hear of an athletic coach or players protesting a decision in a high-school contest. They have learned to accept decisions. Since a debater is merely an intellectual athlete, he should have his code of sportsmanship, just the same as the physical athlete. If coaches can develop debaters: (1) who will play fair at all times; (2) who will give a square deal to their opponents, to the spectators, and to the judges in their interpretation of their material; (3) who will respect the official or officials of the debate and abide by the decision; (4) who will debate for the joy of debating and for the success of the team; (5) who will cooperate with their team mates and not try to "grandstand"; (6) who will conduct themselves while out of school and out of town in a manner that will be a credit to the institution they represent—we can remove many of the criticisms now leveled at debate activities. If we teach our students to win only by legitimate means; if we ourselves try to be the kind of person we hope our debaters will be; and if we can impress upon the administration the fact that they must judge debating in terms of its value as an educational tool in training citizens, and by the conduct and attitudes of the contestants and spectators rather than on the number of decisions won and lost, we can develop these things.

We should remember that we are training future leaders. Out of school they are certain to suffer many reverses, as must all leaders. If we can train them to be true sportsmen and sportswomen, we shall not only make for a more harmonious community, but shall give them one of the prime requisites of a successful life.

Debate Management

In handling all the details of debate management, the coach should call on one of the faculty members, or one of the students, or both, to help. If the schedule is particularly heavy and involves the handling of a considerable sum of money, it sometimes is wise to get an interested faculty member to act as manager. In this case he probably would need at least one student assistant. In most cases, however, it is best to turn the management over to a student. This gives it more of the appearance of a student activity and gives the student manager valuable experience. His duties should be to handle publicity for the squad, to see to it that the school paper and the local community paper are well supplied with stories concerning the activities of the debaters. He should get out posters and notices concerning every home debate, see that the programs are printed and distributed, that the stage is set for the debate and if possible that the tables are decorated with the school colors of the two schools represented. He should see that the visiting debaters are met and made comfortable during their stay, that the judges are supplied with paper and ballots for rendering their decision. If it is the custom of the school to serve refreshments after the debate, he should see that these arrangements are made. In general, he should handle all the details connected with the selling of debate and the actual physical arrangements necessary for it.

Selection of Judges

The debate judges should be selected on the assumption that they are to give a just decision. They should be experts, who are able to give a critique after the debate, and tell why they rendered the decision. Too often judges are chosen for other reasons, because of friendship for the coach, or because of interest in the local school. Judges of this type are being eliminated in most states since it is now customary to have both schools agree on the judges. It is only natural that both coaches will attempt to get a judge who will be as fair as possible to his team. If both work on this premise the judge will be as impartial as possible. In fact, most coaches are beginning to realize that debate judging is a job for experts. Therefore, they employ experts.

Training the Squad

In analyzing the problems confronting the high-school debate coach it is necessary to consider the various situations that exist in different schools. In some institutions debating is an extracurricular activity that must be carried on by the teacher on his own time. Sometimes it is carried on by the teacher in the face of opposition from other members of the faculty, and even in some cases from some parts of the administration itself. In other schools debating is considered a part of the curriculum and a class is taught in the subject. The following suggestions are applicable, in a degree, at least, to any school situation. The first duty of any teacher of debate is to make a thorough study of the debating setup in the state or league in which that school participates, and more particularly of the actual conditions under which he will have to train his teams. In spite of the new challenge of discussion, debating as a teaching technique is making definite progress. I know the enrollment in the Michigan Debate League, for example, has been steadily increasing, and was last year the highest in the state's history. The formal type of debating seems to be getting the most attention in high schools.

There is no arbitrary way of training of a debate squad. There are certain things, however, that can be stressed profitably at various times in the squad's development. Assuming that there are seven weeks from the opening of school to the first major debate, the following program might be used for the development of a team. Of course, adaptations would have to be made to local conditions. Nor is it assumed that items stressed in any particular week should be mentioned only at that time. There will be considerable overlapping, but an attempt has been made to stress each week the phase of debating that can be handled best by the debaters during that week.

A. First Week

This should be devoted to an introduction of objectives and values. Probably the first problem that confronts a debate coach is to train the students to develop a questioning mind, and to acquire an active interest in specific problems of daily life. He should attempt to develop an ability on the part of the students to separate the intrinsic from the extraneous material. Suggestions as to sources of material on the particular question under discussion should be made to guide their reading and research and to prepare them for making a selected bibliography. When students through their own experience in reading, interviews, and other contacts have acquired sufficient background they should be drawn together in round table discussions. It should be impressed upon them that their attitude in these discussions should be one of questioning rather than of assertion. This does not mean that they should be without opinions. Very definitely they should have opinions, and they should advance them in the course of the discussion. But they should be co-operative in the sense that they are willing to forsake those opinions when evidence is brought forth that would indicate that they are wrong. If these discussions are held on the current debate question, an attempt should be made to bring out the fundamental issues that will form the basis for their debates later on. Two of the problems that undoubtedly will arise from this attempt to find the fundamental issues are the definition of terms and the organization of materials. Students naturally will have difficulty in outlining complex situations into the component divisions and subdivisions. They also will discover terms that have uncertain or ambiguous meanings. Exercises should be assigned in outlining complex situations. The students should be taught the value and the limits of the dictionary for certain definitions. Exercises in the phrasing of definitions of common abstract terms, especially terms indicating relationships, should be given. This should be coupled with considerable practice in extemporaneous definitions of familiar terms.

In the early days of training some time should be devoted to giving students real experience in the use of standard indexes, such as the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* and standard reference works. They also should have the experience of conducting interviews with people who are in a position to be recognized as authorities on the subject under discussion. The value of pertinent information should be impressed upon them. Much evidence for use in an actual debate can be gained through interviews and correspondence with authorities. In these, a debater must learn to recognize prejudices and to take them into consideration in evaluating evidence. Perhaps one of the easiest ways to impress upon them the part that prejudice plays in rendering opinion on certain fundamental issues is to refer them to editorials in current newspapers on the same subject. Perhaps by examining the background of each writer, they can determine the reason or reasons by which he arrived at his own particular conclusions.

B. Second Week

The second week should be given over to more specific search for evidence. In guiding the search for evidence, the instructor should give students an understanding of the nature and sufficiency of various kinds of evidence. He should point out that any conclusions reached are only tentative, because probably yet no one has all the important evidence on the case.

Round table discussions can be used to good advantage in developing briefs and outlines. The squad can be divided into affirmative and negative groups; and each group, by means of discussion, can draw up an outline. Often a technical brief is unnecessary, but a general outline of the line of argument that the side wants to follow is very necessary, and certainly should be the result of a cooperative effort by all interested in that side of the question.

If one has veteran debaters, some practice debates can be held in this second week. This will serve two purposes: first, to allow the veterans to get their teeth into the meat of the question and to prevent them from loafing while the other members of the squad are being given preliminary training; second, to give the beginners an opportunity to hear a debate. Even though it may be poor, it will give them an idea of what they are expected to be able to do.

If the facilities are available, it would be well to make records of these debate speeches and to have a criticism by the coach of the recordings.

C. Third Week

In this third week the coach should give specific instructions as to the duties of both affirmative and negative teams. The affirmative should know that, although they have the burden of proof, they must never allow themselves to be put on the defensive. They should compel the negative to meet them on their own ground.

The negative should know that, although they must adapt themselves to the affirmative case, they must also be sure to uphold their own contentions. They should avoid being purely destructive, yet should remember the admonition of Marshal Foch that, "The best defense is to attack, attack, attack." They should force the affirmative to show a definite need, and to show specifically how they would solve the problem.

Much of this third week should be spent on practice debates. Tentative cases will have been formed, and the students should work out individual speaking outlines. In these early debates they should be allowed to handle the arguments contained in the general brief in any way that they may see fit. Each will handle them in a different way, with different emphasis and different arrangement. In this manner it can be determined, in the intrasquad debates, which are the strong arguments and what is the best way of handling each point. In the early debates the more complete the individual's speaking outline, the better it will be, but as the practice continues the outlines should be reduced in size so that in the interschool debates the speaker's outline should be reduced to a minimum.

Every practice debate ought to be followed by a thorough criticism of every phase of the debate. The criticism should be phrased as much as possible so that it will benefit the entire squad, although it may be directed at a particular individual. In this phase of the work there is the greatest need for tact in handling the debaters. Knute Rockne was once asked what was the most important thing that a person should know when going into coaching. Rockne is reported to have replied, "Know when to kick them in the pants and when to pat them on the back." That knowledge is never more necessary than when a coach is criticizing his team. Each debater is an individual problem and must be handled as such. A good coach never forgets that.

If one has a man or woman on the faculty or in the community who is well-versed on the debate subject, it would be well to have that person listen to a debate, and analyze it from the standpoint of case and argument. Often both the team and coach will benefit greatly from suggestions by such a person.

D. Fourth Week

By this time the cases should be definitely formed. The debaters should have a fairly definite outline of their speeches. This is especially true of the veteran debaters. The material should be well-organized so the time now can be given over to as many practice debates as possible. In working the beginning debaters into these intrasquad contests, it is wise to put at least one veteran debater on each team so that from them the new ones will gain both in knowledge and in confidence.

By this time some refutation drills should also be held so students can learn the possible ways of handling opposition arguments. Especial emphasis should be given to the various methods of refutation. The coach may do this by giving the squad a certain argument and asking them to name the best way of refuting it. He should also have rebuttal practice in meeting both specifically assigned written arguments and unpredicted platform arguments.

E. Fifth Week and Sixth Week

These weeks should be devoted to more practice debates and to intensive work on speeches. Particular attention should be given to delivery: poise, directness, vocal force and clearness, rhetorical development for clearness and force, platform movement and gesture. In doing this the coach should guard against casting each one in the same mold. Above all, preserve the individuality of the speaker. Too many coaches have the inclination, either intentionally or unintentionally, to make debaters little carbon copies of themselves or of other debaters.

By this time the tournaments, which have recently come into prominence, will be starting. It is well to participate in as many of these as possible and to take as many members of the squad as one can. This will give everyone a double incentive to improve his knowledge of the question and his debating technique. Each will know that he will get an opportunity at least for interscholastic tournament debating, and that he may make the first team with its opportunity to appear in a league contest. The more practice debates that can be held the better, and in these debates students should be encouraged to develop and try out every conceivable case on the proposition. In these practice debates the team personnel should be shifted so that each member has an opportunity of working with different types of personalities. Speakers should be made to debate in different positions and on different sides of the question. This will broaden the scope of their understanding of the problem and develop a versatility that is necessary for successful debating.

F. Seventh Week

By this time the final team should be pretty well set, so this week can be given over to the final polishing for the first league contest. There should be as many practice debates as possible. There should be special drills on speeches and on rebuttal practice. The director should be sure that the debaters so phrase their speeches that they do not talk over the heads of their audiences. As much as possible they should talk in terms of their audience's experience. Speeches should be well organized so that they move from point to point in a clear and logical manner. It might be well to have the debaters follow the advice of the old Negro preacher: "First, ah tells 'em what ah's gwine to tell 'em; den ah tells 'em; an' last ah tells 'em what ah's told 'em."

The team should avoid using too many detailed statistics, since these tire the audience and the judges. Statistics should be handled as much as possible in terms of the audience. A politician, in one of the campaigns, did this very well. He said, "The national debt is $36,000,000,000. Now you and I can't comprehend this, but we can understand one dollar. If you take one dollar every minute and put it in your sock and could do this from the birth of Christ to the present time, you would have one billion dollars. And we owe thirty-six of these."

Each time a point is made, the speaker should be sure that he clearly shows its relationship to the case as a whole. The evidence should not be too detailed as to the source, unless specific data is requested by the opposition. To do so consumes too much time and is usually unnecessary. The team should not try to do too much. Speakers should have only a few main arguments and should confine themselves to those arguments.

In rebuttal, the teams should be drilled in picking out the important arguments to be answered. They should not attempt to answer too much. As far as possible, all arguments should be handled *in terms of the whole case,* in order that the audience may see how the refutation of the point tends to weaken the whole case of the opposition. Some mistakenly assume that rebuttal is confined to the rebuttal speeches. In good debating this is not true. All through the debate, with the exception of the first affirmative speech, there should be running rebuttal by both teams.

After this intensive training the team should be ready for the first opponent.

Procedure in the Debate

On the date of the debate the speakers' minds should be kept off the actual debate as much as possible. In most schools it is possible to have them excused from afternoon classes. If this is possible they should be encouraged to go to the movies or do something else that will occupy their minds. They should be told not to eat too heavily on the eve of the contest. In fact, a training schedule should be worked out for the intellectual athlete just the same as for the physical athlete.

During the debate the coach should show no shock or surprise at anything that happens. Many times things do happen that certainly do surprise him, but any sign of it may have an adverse effect on the debaters who may watch him. He can smile encouragement if he is so inclined, but it is my opinion that the poker face is best.

After the debate, regardless of how the decision goes, the coach should remain gracious and friendly toward the visiting team and the judges. This is not only good example for the debaters; it is good business. It may be necessary to have these same judges again sometime and they will remember you kindly. Then too, if they have made a mistake (which does not happen as often as we like to believe) they will realize it and will be kindly disposed towards the team the next time they judge it. Always have the judges give the reasons for their decision, and offer any criticisms and comments that they have for any of the debaters. In this manner the coach and the debaters can learn a great deal.

The chairman should be one who follows the rule that "the least said the better." Too often the chairman forgets that his only duty is to put the audience and the participants at ease, and to introduce the subject and speaker. If one is fortunate enough to have a chairman with ability in extemporaneous speaking, he may be able to fill the gap between the close of the debate and the rendering of the decision, so that the delay will not be too uncomfortable. On the other hand, it is better for him to say as little as possible than to make a blundering speech merely to fill time. In order to save time in the actual debate, it is now a common practice for the chairman to introduce all of the debaters before the debate starts, and then allow them to proceed without further introduction. This is an especially good technique when printed programs are in the hands of the audience. If the decision is rendered by a single critic judge, the chairman should introduce him to the audience, telling briefly the qualifications that warranted his selection for that post. If the decision is rendered by a board of three judges, and the result of the ballots is announced by the chairman, he should open all ballots and then announce the result rather than announcing each vote as he opens it. The debaters usually should recognize the chair upon arising from their places at the table. "Ladies and Gentlemen" is sufficient recognition of the audience. If, however, the team is talking to a special troup, such as the Rotary Club, they may recognize the chair and then say, "Members of the Rotary Club."

Time limits in the debate should be rigidly adhered to. This does not require the debater to stop in the middle of a sentence when his time is up, but he should stop at the end of the sentence. If the students are properly drilled and receive at least a two-minute warning, they will be able to come out about even. It is customary to have a representative from each school keep time on the speakers and compare their watches. The time may be shown to the debaters by a series of cards, or if it is preferred, the timers may merely signal the debater by rising when there are two minutes left for him.

The debaters should be cautioned about their conduct at the tables during a debate. Too often during the opposition speeches they converse in a whisper that is audible throughout the room. This is not only discourteous but sometimes works to the detriment of the debaters, because while they are talking among themselves they may miss an important argument advanced by the opposition. Most of the communication between team members should be done by means of notes, or between speeches. When it is necessary to confer, it should be done in whispers that are not audible to the speaker or to the audience.

And when the season is over, whether your teams have won victories or suffered defeats, remember that victory was not the goal. You have been training youth in leadership—developing habits of precision in analysis, teaching them to know when a thing is proved or not proved, quickening their perceptions on the public issues of the world in which they are to live. No real teacher, who keeps these aims in view, can ever have a "losing" season.

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RALPH DENNIS*

FRANK M. RARIG

University of Minnesota

ON AUGUST 21, 1942, Ralph Dennis died at Cuernavaca, Mexico. He was in his 66th year. He died in the first year of his retirement. His life work was done, but we who knew his abounding youthfulness of spirit cannot help feeling that his life ended before it was finished. It would have taken several lives to fill full his large capacity for living. While living he lived life to the brim. His was a spirit akin to that of one of our greatest jurists who said of life—"that is an end in itself, and the only ques tion as to whether it is worth living is whether you have had enough of it. . . . Life is painting a picture, not doing a sum." Ralph Dennis never painted a picture, but he built an institution; and, what is more, he built his influence as an unforgettable memory into the lives of thousands of his fellow men. I say "fellow men," because his interests and activities, his sympathies and understandings ranged far beyond the School of Speech of Northwestern University.

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* Presented at a General Session of the Twenty-seventh Annual Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, in the Palmer House, Chicago, December 30, 1942.

The Dean Dennis most of you knew was not the personality who taught under Dr. Cumnock from 1901 to 1909. If any man ever underwent what, for want of a better word I must call a *conversion,* Dennis was that man. In the spring of 1909 he remarked to me that he had decided to quit teaching. "I am tired," he said, "of trying to get students to do what they don't want to do. Their indifference has got me down." He went on to say that his parents were not well and that he was going home to Traer to take care of them. Later he became a bank cashier in Sioux Falls, South Dakota. When I saw him next he was on his way to become a social worker in the George Junior Republic in Freeville, New York. "I have learned," he said, "how pinching pennies can cramp a man's soul. I've got to work with human beings. I think I can do something for boys." It was not alone his interest in boys that led him to this decision. His reading of Henry George's *Progress and Poverty* had opened for him a vista of possibilities for the training of citizens in a society more humane and rational than the society that had grown like Topsy during the pioneer period of politics and exploitation in these United States. I had no further word of him until after he was made Dean of the Cumnock School of Oratory. We know now that he had found his life work, which was to build the School of Speech of Northwestern University. Years afterward, in the summer of 1934, in referring to my own mood of transport induced by his powerful and zestful reading in a faculty recital, I baited him with, "What amazes me is that the sardonic Dennis I knew 30 years ago could do what you did today." "You're right," he said, "I've learned to say 'Yes' to life." His reply was characteristically laconic. He did not elaborate. But this discovery of sources of power within himself must be taken into account, together with his rare qualities of energy, imagination, penetrating but sympathetic understanding, and his unspecialized wisdom, in any attempt to appreciate his achievements as administrator, as teacher and guide of youth, as interpreter, and as a man.

Dean Dennis began his work as administrator in 1913. This ASSOCIATION was founded in 1914 and published the first number of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF PUBLIC SPEAKING in April, 1915. It is interesting to note in the first volume of the QUARTERLY the germinal beginnings of the growth we have made in 28 years, and against this background to examine the "Skipper's" method as an administrator. In the first number, James A. Winans pointed to research as a path we must follow to academic orthodoxy. He mentioned a forthcoming book by Charles H. Woolbert, who he said, "agrees with me that, instead of establishing many truths, he will start controversies which should be settled by investigators." To Woolbert, controversy was inspiration to greater and greater achievements; it motivated much of his best teaching and writing; but the beginning of controversy did not wait for Woolbert's book. In the second number of the QUARTERLY, Everett Hunt took sharp issue with "the ideal of research as a means of traveling the orthodox way into the sheepfold." He further wrote, "it is not in any sense the purpose of chairs of public speaking to annex new realms of undiscovered knowledge."

The promotion of research did not wait for the settlement of the controversy about it. As Professor Winans said in the last sentence of his rejoinder to Professor Hunt, "Well, it is coming anyhow." It was coming. The first number of the QUARTERLY also contains the first report of the Research Committee. This report and others that follow, as well as announcements of editorial policy, urge the importance of research and of the publication of results of research. An editorial makes this declaration of policy: "We will give in the pages of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL the right of way over all other material to articles which give the results of research which come to us through the chairman of the Committee on Research. We will give practically unlimited space to such articles and will save such space for articles promised to us in advance." Such faith deserved its just reward; and although the returns came haltingly at first, they came in an ever increasing flood, until now our graduate students have written thousands of theses, and the researches of our scholars are quoted with respect by researchers in other fields. We have specialists in every nook and cranny of the area of education known as Speech.

Against the background of the developments in our profession since 1914, Dean Dennis's characteristics are largely a study in contrast. Of his achievements as an administrator we all know. James L. Lardner has stated in bare outline the external facts of the expansion and development of the School of Speech:

> In 1913, there were nine teachers; today there are 22 regular teachers and 18 assistants. In 1913, eleven courses were offered; in 1942, 73 were given.
>
> In 1913, two fields of speech study were presented: interpretation of literature and vocal culture. Today, four additional divisions of study are offered: public speaking, speech pedagogy, speech re-education and theatre. In 1913, a two-year diploma course and a one-year post-graduate course were given—neither leading to a degree; but today, undergraduate courses are offered leading to a four-year bachelor's degree, and graduate programs of study are organized leading to a master's degree and to a doctor's degree. (*Northwestern Alumni News,* October 1942, p. 12.)

Ralph Dennis was a dean, and yet he had no earned degree above the B.A. He was awarded an honorary master's degree by Northwestern University and an honorary doctor's degree by Wabash College. He never became a specialist. He did not pursue specialized research. While administration was becoming specialized in many universities, in fact was becoming business management, he conducted the business affairs of the School of Speech with business efficiency but only as an incidental and necessary phase of his many activities. He was not a prolific writer. His "One Imperative Plus" has entered into the folk-lore of teachers of oral interpretation, and his article entitled "The Oratorical Contest—A Shot in the Dark" is a terse, incisive analysis of the failure of student orators to adapt their speeches to their audiences. It was not by finding his way into the sheepfold of academic orthodoxy that Dennis became the leader of his faculty and students. It was not by championing a cause in any controversy, for he was seldom a controversialist. He enjoyed arguments carried on by others. He would sit by the hour listening to verbal attack and counter-attack, an expression of quizzical humor on his face, encouraging the lagging zealots, and making now and then a penetrating comment. At convention programs, he would listen to a paper on the periphery of some segment of the field of speech and afterward make such comments as the following: "He has a fine theory. I wonder if it'll work"; or "He gets pretty far out on a limb."

He had both a centrifugal and a centripetal mind. He pondered, weighed, selected, rejected, formed judgments, constantly enlarged and at the same time integrated his central philosophy of the purpose of speech education. That purpose was the awakening and disciplining of the creative powers of the individual student. He had faith in the undisclosed powers of youth and utterly rejected the suggestions of teachers who indulged in humors of negation and satirical self-superiority. Youth were to him the builders of the future, and to prepare them to build it was his one aim and purpose. To this end, as a thinker, he ruthlessly subordinated all theories and, as dean, the selection and administration of his faculty. It should be emphasized that he "enlarged his philosophy of speech education." His was no closed mind. Could a man or woman "ring the bell"? was his constant concern.

His faith in students included faith in his staff. Nothing so distressed him as a dead-on-his-feet teacher, who had fallen into a rut of academic routine, who had ceased to grow. He searched for original ideas, both inside and outside the "sheepfold of academic orthodoxy." How could the work of the School of Speech be better articulated with courses in the College of Liberal Arts? How could it be made to serve better the needs of future teachers and of participants in business and public affairs? He circulated among members of the faculties of other colleges, cultivated an acute awareness of the world of business and politics, explored, questioned, evaluated, reached decisions, used his influence, which was not insignificant, to clear the way for new projects. His wide-ranging interests and activities poured their contributions into his understanding and were there assimilated into his central purpose. He organized a cosmos, in which the centrifugal forces balanced the centripetal.

Ruskin has said that "Wherever the wind of progress stops blowing, there, in an eddy, springs up an institution." Dennis had the opposite conception of the School of Speech. It was his function to organize life forces into an educational process, not to build a monument to himself. In his last will and testament, he left these instructions:

> If, at the time of my death, I am still connected with the School of Speech of Northwestern University, it is my desire that nothing more be done than this. Let the last minutes of a regular assembly hour be used by a member of the faculty who shall say something like this: a man who believed in the kind of education offered by this school, who was proud of the product turned out by it, who worked with it for many years, is gone. It was his wish that no classes be closed, no ceremonies be held, no eulogies be spoken. He asks that we close ranks, march on.

In his drive toward his purpose to organize educational resources in the School of Speech, he was singularly successful in maintaining a loyal, enthusiastic, and cooperating staff. He recognized this fact, but gave his staff the credit: "I could not have accomplished what I did for the school," he often said, "if I had not had a teaching force willing to cooperate with me." As Professor Lardner has said, "He called for original ideas and plans and had the good sense to give his teachers freedom in working them out. If an idea or a program was considered good by the faculty, it was developed in a fine spirit of cooperation."

When asked how he built the School of Speech as he had built it, he replied "I play hunches." It was characteristic of him to deprecate himself. He never laid bare the roots of his thinking. As one of his understanding colleagues has said, "He was very smart but didn't know it. He always discounted himself because he lacked formal academic scholarship. But he was twice as smart natively as the average pompous scholar.

He had common sense, profound wisdom, understanding of the realities of life, a vast range of human experience, and great insight."

It was by his qualities as a personality, not by any formal precepts or education theories, that he exercised his persistent, pervasive, and constructive influence. The same colleague says of him that as an administrator, "He was superb. He was at once the hardest man in the world to work for and yet the easiest. Hard? Well, his standards were high. He was impatient with mediocrity if it ever cropped up in his staff. He was intolerant of slovenliness, of dishonesty, of chiseling, of lack of intelligence, of lack of ambition. He believed that every man on his staff should be shooting at the moon all the time—and that he should come close to hitting it constantly. Skipper would never talk about these matters to the staff. He would always give everybody a lot of rope. He'd turn a man loose in his field with utter freedom—to make himself or break himself. Skipper was a driver; he put the pressure on, however, without words."

How he learned his art of generating the creative powers of students must remain for the most part unknown to us. It is certain that he turned from within outward, from himself to others. Of my own knowledge, I can testify that it was from his own early struggles, conflicts within himself, his own tragic bewilderment that he acquired his impatience with conventional judgments, his rejection of appearances, and his search for underlying realities, and, withal, his profound understanding and ready compassionateness.

An omnivorous reader, Dennis assimilated what he read. He drew ideas from great books. He took no pride in the knowledge thus gained. No man could have been less a pedant. He read for understanding of life, of youth, and of himself, for he was eternally youthful. What ideas he could use he put into practice; some he pondered, weighed; some he rejected as false or "half-baked." He was suspicious of academic routine, of conventional routine of every kind; and from his wide reading and experience of life, he discovered and put into operation the means whereby students were released from their negations, their fears, their inadequacies, the means whereby they themselves, under their own power, learned to take their own way into life, to win recognition by their fellows. Dennis himself lived and moved and had his being in a matrix of mutual relationships with men and women of every class and race and color. The range of his interests, sympathies, and explorations was all-inclusive. His experiencing nature drove him to penetrate conventional barriers of class, race, color, and nationality. He loved to talk with men next to the facts, men whose direct experience made them authorities, men of original insight, unobscured by theories or self-deceptions; and this spirit he infused, in varying degrees, into his students.

Dean Dennis was more a guide than a teacher of youth. His methods had in them so little of orthodox pedagogy that his students were at first perplexed and hard put to it to explain even to themselves just what his course, "Materials and Backgrounds for Interpretation," was about. More or less gradually it dawned on the more percipient that the course required study not of any specialized subject, but of an inclusive one, namely themselves and their world. As Carl England, one of his students, has explained it. "What do we do in the class? We read, listen, think, and write. About what? About anything. The first of the two basic premises upon which the course is constructed is: there are no uninteresting things, only uninterested people. The second one is: an unexamined life is not worth living." Each student in the course wrote an autobiography, a "ME" paper about himself. These papers, or many of them, were read in class. They were candid self-analyses. To a listening outsider, it was clear that these writers had found themselves interesting, that they had been guided to a vantage point from which they found it an exhilarating experience to look back over their lives with frank acceptance of themselves. They had been realeased from many fears. They had discovered their narrowness, their unjustified prejudices, and many a kink in their thinking. When the writers of these papers read, they read not as if revealing dread secrets but as if ridding themselves of surplus baggage. They seemed to be travelers preparing for an adventurous journey. The only taboo was triteness. The paper would have shocked the pruriently self-righteous, the prim custodians of village morals, the exploiters of community scandals. They were candid and honest. They joyously defied the taunting whispers of the social censor. It was by such methods, among others, that Dennis led students to make friends with themselves and with one another, and to make themselves at home in the world.

In all this he was an interpreter. He did as a counsellor and guide what a poet has said is the function of poetry. He mediated between the individual and what the individual had undergone, in order that he might recognize it for what it was and then, taking one more step, either accept it or reject it.

Dr. Cumnock used to say that Ralph Dennis was one of the most powerful readers of dramatic literature who had ever been graduated from the School. We who have heard him read recognize that whatever he read, the open, story, essay, or play was only the organization in words of a facet of his multifariously experiencing nature, of his gusto, his zest, his keen wit and broad humor, his romantic expansiveness and his hard realism, his satiric incisiveness, his sharp irony, his compassionateness, his profound sense and acceptance of the tragedies in human lives. His body was trained to the finest and most subtle discriminations of the mature artist. His voice was an instrument of rare beauty and power, but no one who heard him read noticed his voice because in its variety of melody and in its nuances of quality, he heard and felt only the movementments and the turnings of the action. He was not a severely restrained reader. He read as a companion, a sharer of experience. Not infrequently his abounding experience boiled up and through the form of the literature and flowed out and around and through his audience. Those who heard him read Thomas Wolfe's "What is Man," can never forget the abandon and power with which he made this pronouncement, in the words of another, of his own imaginative and emotional experience and conception of man's highest and lowest estate.

It is the wider ranges of his interpretative explorations of the world and of the people in it which reveal in detail and in large outline the capacities of this man. When events in Russia marked a turning point in history he was there. When the League of Nations began to function in Geneva in the early twenties, he was there. His letters sent to friends while on his trip around the world are testimonials of his craving for knowledge and understanding of all peoples. They abound in the imagery of sounds, sights, smells, the taste of foods in the cities of South America, Africa, England, and Ireland. The style of the letters is the informal man himself, vivid, pungent, sharply chiseled, dramatic, boyishly exuberant, maturely reflective.

To read these letters is to wonder whether one has been wholly alive. He had eyes to see and ears to hear. He looked at the world and saw that it was good. He talked with all whose language he could share, and whether he agreed with them or not, he found the converse *good*. His imagination set a stage on which were enacted the dramas of history, on which forces in conflict were balanced under control of an objective judgment, a judgment that pondered, weighed, and never condemned, but which nevertheless always evaluated in terms of abiding human and humane values. His method was that of the artist who submits himself to situations, to people, to opinions, prejudices; who *feels* intensely and vividly, and then reflects, seeks for understanding.

As an administrator, Ralph Dennis was first an interpreter and next a practical executive. As a reader, he was first an experiencing nature, then an interpreter of experience, and finally an interpreter of life through literature. He was no scientist, but as a leader and guide of youth he was rather a maker of climate congenial for growth. In his life he was a whole man and a creative artist, who selected from the confusions of the world what he needed for his art of living and of work.

THE FORUM

MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL OF THE N.A.T.S.

December 27, 1942, 2:30 P.M., Palmer House, Chicago, Illinois

Meeting of the Executive Council was called to order by President Wise. The President called attention to the death of Ex-President Howard S. Woodward and Vice-Presirent West announced a memorial address honoring Woodward to be given at the Wednesday morning general session by Emerson W. Miller of Wooster. The illness of Ex-Secretary Ray K. Immel was noted and a telegram ordered sent on behalf of the Council and Association wishing him a speedy recovery.

The report of the Executive Secretary was presented. A motion was adopted instructing the President to write a note to Lorene B. Welch expressing the Council's appreciation for her loyal service to the Association. Gray moved that in special appreciation of the many hours of unrequited overtime work Mrs. Welch has given to the Association the sum of twenty-five dollars be presented to her as a holiday bonus. Seconded and carried. Gray moved that the Council endorse the action of the business office in extending to members in the armed services free extension of their memberships for the duration. Seconded and carried. Eich moved endorsement of the policy of offering a two-year Sustaining Membership in return for a war bond of $25.00 maturity value. Seconded and carried. Knower moved acceptance of the report of the Executive Secretary. Seconded and carried.

The report of the Editor of the JOURNAL was presented. He noted the briefer index and its inclusion for the first time as a part of the December JOURNAL. He called attention to several new features. Cortright moved acceptance of the report of the Editor. Seconded and carried.

An opportunity was given to Ruth Haun, U. of Pittsburgh, and Mr. Schaffer of the Convention Bureau to present an invitation to hold a future convention at Pittsburgh.

Knower reported for the Committee on Problems in Speech Education. Rasmussen reported for the Elementary School Subcommittee and announced the readiness for publication of a course of study. The report was received but further action delayed for the report from the Committee on Publications. Robinson reported for the Secondary School Subcommittee. He called attention to the success of the Service Division, to the articles, prepared by the committee, appearing serially in the JOURNAL, and to a special bulletin in preparation on *A War Program in Speech Education for the Secondary School.* After long discussion of possible avenues for publication of the war bulletin, Yeager was delegated by general consent to make proper Washington approaches toward its publication when ready. Approval of Robinson's report was moved and carried.

Kramer reported for the Subcommittee on Speech in Teacher Education. She called attention to the completion of a national survey of Speech Education in teachers colleges controlled by the state government and accredited by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Suggested projects for the Committee's further work included: formulation of programs in speech education for prospective teachers of Speech and for prospective elementary and high school teachers of other subjects, and a study of certification requirements. Yeager moved, Cortright seconded, approval of the report. Carried.

Anderson reported for the College and University Subcommittee. The Committee has concerned itself with finding ways and means for improving techniques and procedures in the teaching of speech. The report was approved. No report was at hand from the Junior College Subcommittee. Knower called attention to the publication of that Committee's 1941 report in the *Junior College Journal*. No report was at hand for the Subcommittee on Extra-Curricular Activities.

Knower asked continuation of the entire set-up of the Committee on Problems in Speech Education and its Subcommittees. He reported progress in co-operative undertakings with the National Committee on Curriculum Revision for War and with the U. S. Department of Education in its study of adaptations of collegiate curriculums in war time. The latter report, with particular recommendations concerning speech, has gone to press. Knower outlined the results of a survey of what colleges and universities are doing in aid of the war effort through speech classes and activities. As a result of his presentation of several suggestions as to problems and needs in this field, Knower moved that the Committee on Committees be instructed to nominate personnel for a War Program Committee, three members of which shall be the N.A.T.S. President and Executive Secretary and W. Hayes Yeager. This Committee shall be empowered to act, to secure information, to draw upon the resources of the Association for assistance and suggestions, to analyze facts and needs, to formulate and distribute suggestions, to make necessary educational and governmental contacts, to the end of securing for the young men and women of the nation—especially those in the armed forces—such training in speech as will enable them better to perform their duties, whether military or civilian, during the war and the post-war reconstruction period. Seconded by Simon. Carried. Layton moved that funds be made available to the War Program Committee subject only to the approval of the Association's President and Finance Committee. Seconded by Brigance. Carried. Knower moved to refer the latter part of his report (concerning the survey of college speech activities in aid of the war effort) to the War Program Committee for further action. Seconded by Brigance. Carried.

Aly moved that the Council recommend to the Assembly the adoption of a new Section 4 of Article IV of the By-Laws to read: The Executive Council is authorized to appoint at its discretion a steering committee of five members to serve and act in the name of the Association. Seconded and carried.

Simon moved that the Committee on Committees be instructed to nominate personnel for such a steering committee. Seconded and carried.

Brigance made a final report for the Committee on Studies in American Public Address announcing that the two-volume work, "A History and Criticism of American Public Address," is scheduled to come from the McGraw-Hill press early in 1943. The report was accepted with thanks and commendation.

Aly reported on the satisfactory state of N.U.E.A. relations. Research Editor Wagner's report was read by President Wise. Since this report requested clarification of the function of the Committee on Research, this problem was referred to the Committee on Committees. The report was accepted. Hance reported for the Committee on Publications. He presented pros and cons of further publications in the secondary and elementary fields, of special bibliographies, and of Knower's index. The report was accepted. Knower moved that the bibliographies submitted by the Secondary School Committee and the proposed publication from the Elementary School Committee be returned to the respective committees with approval and the suggestion that they seek publication under other than Association auspices. Seconded and carried. Aly moved publication of Knower's index of the JOURNAL and *Monographs*. Seconded. Brigance moved to amend by adding: at completion of volume XXX of the JOURNAL. Aly seconded the amendment. Amendment carried. Motion carried as amended.

Simon moved to refer the Secondary School Committee's proposed war bulletin to the Finance Committee for decision as to possibility of its publication by the N.A.T.S. in event of failure to secure publication otherwise. Seconded and carried. President Wise reported with regard to relations with the N.E.A. that Raymond Kroggel had been appointed to prepare a speech program for the St. Louis meeting, and D. W. Morris for the Indianapolis meeting. (As these notes go to press in March, both of these scheduled meetings have been cancelled by the N.E.A. upon ODT request.)

The Executive Secretary called attention to the roll of N.A.T.S. members serving in the armed forces, now numbering more than 170 names, which will hold a place of honor throughout the convention in the foyer of the Grand Ball Room. The President presented information concerning the Theatre Annual. Brigance moved that the Council recommend to the Committee on Committees appointment of a new Committee on Studies in Regional Public Address. Seconded by Simon. Carried. Knower moved to refer to the Committee on Publications for special consideration a series of Association Yearbooks. Seconded by Gray. Carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Tuesday, December 29, 1942, 4:00 P.M.

Meeting called to order by President Wise. The movement to use professional actors in a street entertainment organization for civilian morale building was explained by Mr. Marsand. Fairbanks reported for the Committee on Encouragement of Scholarship. The Committee requested guidance as to its specific function. Cortright moved continuation of the Committee. Seconded and carried. Yeager gave a detailed report for the War Committee. As an outgrowth of discussion on this report the following resolutions were adopted:

I. We recommend to our membership complete co-operation with the Office of War Information in the prosecution of the war.

II. We place the facilities of The National Association of Teachers of Speech without reserve at the disposal of the Office of War Information in the prosecution of the war.

By unanimous consent Yeager's suggestion was adopted that the President should write to the Office of War Information in appreciation for the sending of its representative, E. W. Balduf, to the convention, and mentioning the

Association's War Committee as providing a ready contact for requesting any desired assistance from The National Association of Teachers of Speech.

The report of the Committee on Committees was taken up and considered in detail. The list of committees with membership as finally approved is printed immediately following these minutes. The Committees on Research and on Encouragement of Scholarship were instructed to work out their own respective objectives and purposes. In the absence of any report from the Committee to Secure Sound Pictures of Speakers in Action it was left to the President to take whatever action later seems wise with regard to that Committee. It was decided, as a matter of policy, to decline to accept resignations from committees because of service with the armed forces.

Meeting adjourned.

Wednesday, December 30, 1942, 2:00 P.M.

Meeting called to order by the President. Favorable hearing was given to a report by Ceough, of C.C.N.Y., concerning the Theatre Annual sponsored by The Theatre Library Association. It was suggested that this was a deserving matter to be brought to the attention of the Committee on Encouragement of Scholarship. Beauchamp reported for the Committee on Intercollegiate Debate and Discussion Activities. His report was accepted.

The Finance Committee asked that the Council authorize it, in the face of present emergency conditions, to revise the 1942-43 budget as might become necessary to keep expenditures within income. It was moved that this authorization be given to the Finance Committee. Seconded and carried.

Robbins reported the satisfaction which the American Speech Correction Association felt with regard to the present co-operative convention arrangements. It was the consensus of opinion that both Associations wish present agreements to be continued. By common consent, it was felt that at present there was no reason for changing plans for the 1943 Conference in New York City. Headquarters will be at the Commodore Hotel. The dates: December 28, 29, 30. Aly moved that the conference following that in New York be held in Chicago. Seconded and carried.

Knower moved approval by this Council, subject to approval by the Finance Committee, of offprinting 500 copies of each of the articles appearing in the JOURNAL which have been prepared by the Secondary School Committee. Seconded and carried.

Meeting adjourned.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL SESSION OF THE N.A.T.S.

Grand Ball Room, The Palmer House, Chicago, Illinois

Monday, December 28, 1942, 11:00 A.M.

Meeting called to order by President Wise. Vice-President West made several announcements of program additions and changes. Brief reports were presented by Editor Brigance and Executive Secretary Cortright. Ballots were cast for the nominating committee for 1944 officers. Wise appointed as tellers: E. D. Hess, J. D. Shaver, W. A. Wiksell, E. Ray Skinner, chairman.

In the absence of chairman Wichelns, Gilkinson read the report of the Nominating Committee for N.A.T.S. officers for 1943, as previously printed in the April JOURNAL (with one later change made necessary by the entrance of Wilbur Gilman into service with the armed forces), and moved that the following nominees be elected:

President: Robert West, University of Wisconsin
First Vice-President: Bower Aly, University of Missouri
Second Vice-President: Dina Rees Evans, Cleveland Heights High School
Members of the Executive Council:
  Louis M. Eich, University of Michigan
  Thomas Rousse, University of Texas
  Lester Thonssen, College of the City of New York
  Karl R. Wallace, University of Virginia

Motion seconded and carried unanimously.

Cortright presented the recommendation of the Council and moved adoption of an amendment to the Association's By-Laws adding a new Section 4 to Article IV: The Executive Council is authorized to appoint at its discretion a steering committee of five members to serve and act in the name of the Association. Seconded and carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Wednesday, December 30, 1942, 11:30 A.M.

Meeting called to order by President Wise.

Skinner presented the report of the tellers announcing the membership of the nominating committee for 1944 officers:

W. N. Brigance, Chairman
Lionel Crocker
Clarence Simon
Joseph Smith
A. T. Weaver

The President announced the action of the Council in setting up the War Committee and the Steering Committee. Retiring President Wise presented the gavel to incoming President West.

Meeting adjourned.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH

Standing Committees

The Chairman of each Committee is named first. Ex-officio members are listed in italics.

Committee on Research

Russell H. Wagner, Cornell University
Bower Aly, University of Missouri
Virgil A. Anderson, Stanford University
James F. Bender, Queens College
Wilbur S. Howell, Princeton University
Claude E. Kantner, Louisiana State University
George R. Kernodle, Western Reserve University
Franklin H. Knower, State University of Iowa
James H. McBurney, Northwestern University

Committee of Finance

Henry L. Ewbank, University of Wisconsin
G. E. Densmore, University of Michigan
D. W. Morris, State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.
Rupert L. Cortright. Wayne University

Committee on Publications

Kenneth G. Hance, University of Michigan
Ruby Cloys Krider, Grove High School, Paris, Tenn.
Andrew T. Weaver, University of Wisconsin
W. Norwood Brigance, Wabash College
Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
Russell H. Wagner, Cornell University
Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin

Steering Committee

Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin
Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
Alan H. Monroe, Purdue University
Herbert A. Wichelns, Cornell University
Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University

Committee of Problems in Speech Education

Franklin H. Knower, State University of Iowa
Hurst R. Anderson, Allegheny College
Magdalene Kramer, Teachers College, Columbia University
Raymond P. Kroggel, Stephens College
Carrie Rasmussen, Longfellow School, Madison, Wis.
Karl F. Robinson, State University of Iowa

Subcommittee on the Secondary Schools

Karl F. Robinson, State University of Iowa
Gladys Borchers, University of Wisconsin
Cyretta Morford, Redford High School, Detroit, Mich.
Katherine A. Ommanney, North Denver High School, Denver, Colo.

Subcommittee on the Elementary Schools

Carrie Rasmussen, Longfellow School, Madison, Wis.
Rita Criste, Public Schools, Evanston, Ill.
Elvena Miller, Public Schools, Seattle, Wash.
Merel Parks, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich.
Letitia Raubicheck, Public Schools, New York City

Subcommittee on Junior Colleges

Raymond P. Kroggel, Stephens College
Mary Asseltyne, Junior College, Virginia, Minn.
Robert D. Clark, Stockton (Calif.) Junior College
W. S. Gould, Graceland College
Clifton S. Lines, Eastern State Normal School, Madison, S.D.
Wilferd P. Rayner, Jackson (Mich.) Junior College

Subcommittee on Colleges and Universities

Hurst R. Anderson, Allegheny College
George V. Bohman, Dartmouth College
Howard Gilkinson, University of Minnesota
Alan H. Monroe, Purdue University
Horace G. Rahskopf, University of Washington

Subcommittee on Teacher Education

Magdalene Kramer, Teachers College, Columbia University
Mabel Allen, Illinois State Normal University
G. E. Densmore, University of Michigan
Ernest H. Henrikson, State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.
D. W. Morris, State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.

Subcommittee on Extra-Curricular Activities

Lionel Crocker, Denison University
Joyce Gregory, West High School, Minneapolis, Minn.
Karl F. Robinson, State University of Iowa
Ralph N. Schmidt, Jamestown College
Arthur Secord, University of Michigan

Committee on State and Regional Speech Associations

Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
The President and Secretary of:
  The Central States Speech Association
  The Eastern Public Speaking Conference
  The Southern Association of Teachers of Speech
  The Western Association of Teachers of Speech
Victor H. Hoppe, Western Washington College of Education
Leroy T. Laase, University of Nebraska
Paul Soper, University of Tennessee
J. Walter Reeves, The Peddie School, Hightstown, N.J.

Committee on Cooperation with Other Organizations

Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin
Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University

Subcommittee on the National Education Association

D. W. Morris, State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.
Raymond P. Kroggel, Stephens College

Subcommittee on the National University Extension Association

Bower Aly, University of Missouri

Subcommittee on the American Speech Correction Association

Samuel D. Robbins, Emerson College

Subcommittee on the American Educational Theatre Association

George Savage, University of Washington

COMMITTEE ON COMMITTEES

Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin
Bower Aly, University of Missouri
W. Norwood Brigance, Wabash College
Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
Louis M. Eich, University of Michigan
Giles W. Gray, Louisiana State University
Elwood Murray, University of Denver
Clarence T. Simon, Northwestern University
Russell H. Wagner, Cornell University
Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University

SPECIAL COMMITTEES

WAR COMMITTEE

Bower Aly, University of Missouri
W. Norwood Brigance, Wabash College
Rupert L. Cortright, Wayne University
Franklin H. Knower, State University of Iowa
Lee Norvelle, Indiana University
Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin
W. Hayes Yeager, George Washington University

COMMITTEE ON INTERCOLLEGIATE DEBATE AND DISCUSSION ACTIVITIES

Chairman to be named by Delta Sigma Rho
George Beauchamp, Manchester College
James D. Davis, Junior College, Glendale, Calif.
Nelle Jones, Chanute Junior College
Charles R. Layton, Muskingum College
N. Edd Miller, University of Texas
Orville C. Miller, Purdue University
Wilbur Moore, Central Michigan College of Education
Forrest H. Rose, Southeast Missouri State Teachers College
Robert F. Young, Williams College

COMMITTEE ON REGIONAL STUDIES IN AMERICAN ORATORY

Bower Aly, University of Missouri

COMMITTEE ON BIBLIOGRAPHY

Lester Thonssen, College of the City of New York
A. Craig Baird, State University of Iowa
Gladys L. Borchers, University of Wisconsin
Grant Fairbanks, State University of Iowa
Hubert Heffner, Stanford University
Dayton McKean, Dartmouth College
Argus Tresidder, Madison College
Robert West, University of Wisconsin
Claude M. Wise, Louisiana State University

COMMITTEE ON CONTEMPORARY PUBLIC ADDRESS

Loren D. Reid, Syracuse University
Bower Aly, University of Missouri
A. Craig Baird, State University of Iowa

COMMITTEE ON ENCOURAGEMENT OF SCHOLARSHIP

Mary E. Latimer, Mary Baldwin College
Wilbur E. Gilman, University of Missouri
George R. Kernodle, Western Reserve University
James H. McBurney, Northwestern University
Herbert Wichelns, Cornell University
Walter Wilke, New York University

COMMITTEE ON EXCHANGE OF MATERIALS

D. W. Morris, State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Ind.
Wilbur Moore, Central Michigan College of Education
Elwood Murray, University of Denver
Robert W. West, University of Wisconsin
Arleigh B. Williamson, New York University

COMMITTEE TO SECURE SOUND PICTURES OF SPEAKERS IN ACTION

Richard Woellhaf, Miami University
Lionel Crocker, Denison University
Earl E. Fleischman, College of the City of New York
Ray K. Immel, University of Southern California

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH AND THE AMERICAN SPEECH CORRECTION ASSOCIATION

Convention Attendance, Chicago, Illinois, 1942

Alabama	1
Arizona	1
Arkansas	2
California	3
Colorado	6
Connecticut	0
Delaware	0
District of Columbia	2
Florida	0
Georgia	1
Idaho	0
Illinois	103
Indiana	40
Iowa	21
Kansas	4
Kentucky	2
Louisiana	5
Maine	0
Maryland	0
Massachusetts	4
Michigan	38
Minnesota	13
Mississippi	0
Missouri	19
Montana	1
Nebraska	7
Nevada	0
New Hampshire	2
New Jersey	2
New Mexico	0
New York	15
North Carolina	1
North Dakota	1
Ohio	21
Oklahoma	2
Oregon	0
Pennsylvania	9
Rhode Island	0
South Carolina	1
South Dakota	4
Tennessee	1
Texas	1
Utah	2
Vermont	0
Virginia	2
Washington	1
West Virginia	1
Wisconsin	55
Wyoming	0
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REPORT OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE

The Nominating Committee recommends for approval at the New York Convention in December, 1943, the following list of candidates:

President: **Bower Aly**, *University of Missouri*

First Vice-President: **Joseph F. Smith**, *University of Utah*

Second Vice-President: **John W. Black**, *Kenyon College*

Members of the Executive Council:

Dina Rees Evans, *Cleveland Heights High School*

Kenneth G. Hance, *University of Michigan*

Gerald E. Marsh, *University of California*

Loren D. Reid, *Syracuse University*

Submitted by:

Lionel Crocker
Clarence T. Simon
Andrew T. Weaver
W. Norwood Brigance, *Chairman*

EDITORIAL

THE WAR OF WORDS

One year ago an editorial on "The Contribution of Speech to National Defense" appeared in this magazine in which the Editor drew on his experiences on the Western Front during the last war to show the very great need for training in speech among officers in the armed forces, and the responsibility resting on teachers of speech to furnish this training. Events of the year have so emphasized that viewpoint, that, if reread now, the editorial seems to be laboring on the obvious.

This editorial deals with the home front instead of the fighting front. It was not written by the Editor. It was not written by a teacher of speech. It was not written by an educator. It is discerning analysis of a newspaper writer, Malvina Lindsay, in the column on "The Gentler Sex," as it appeared in the *Washington Post* on February 4, 1943. It is here reprinted by permission:

"Slipshod public speaking is becoming a definite handicap to the conduct of the war on the home front. On every hand is heard increasing irritation over time wasted in meetings where speakers either having nothing to say or can't say what they have to say in a clear and stimulating manner. The mumblers, the jumblers, the ramblers and the fuzzy-wuzzy thinkers seem to be having a field day at the expense of audiences whose time is as precious these days as ammunition. Small wonder the public is showing a tendency to turn aside from all addresses with a bored 'More propaganda!'

"This is most unfortunate since this war is so largely one of ideas and hence must be fought mightily with words. And the coming peace should afford even more discussion so that it may reflect the ideas of an informed public.

"Women are being blamed for a great deal of this tiresome public chatter—possibly because they prevail in public meetings. But men speakers probably hold the wordage record. And they are the ones who in their posts on war boards and commissions have the chief responsibility for telling the people what it is all about. Occasionally they do this effectively—a few may even approach the mastery of Elmer Davis in making every word count—but too often they monotonously read their ghost written speeches or even worse, meander through those of their own, while the audience day dreams about its postwar gadgets. . . .

"Whence comes this colossal egotism that causes all of us to think we can 'just get up and talk'? Why do we assume that by acquiring public posts we automatically become endowed with the power to speak well—or at least the right to bore the public? Is this attitude a part of our easy-going American tolerance of mediocrity?"

NEW BOOKS

LOREN D. REID, *Editor*

The Nature of Literature: Its Relation to Science, Language and Human Experience. By THOMAS CLARK POLLOCK. Princeton: the Princeton University Press, 1942; pp. 218 + xxvi. $3.00.

There can be little but satisfaction with the professed purpose of Professor Pollock's book: "To lay a theoretical basis for the investigation of literature as a social phenomenon in terms which are consonant both with our contemporary knowledge of language and with the development of modern science." In fact it would be a mistake for any serious student of speech or literature to permit his legitimate preconceptions against quackery in this area of thought to prejudice his approach to Professor Pollock's work.

The Nature of Literature brings carefully to bear on literature (meaning that body of writings, including but not conterminous with poetry, which are variously thought of as creative, imaginative, or artistic) the pertinent results of recent psychological, linguistic, and semantic study. This is done through an explanation of the nature of language and the manner and means of its functioning in human communication, and through careful analysis of the uses of language and clear distinctions among them in reasonable, scientific terms. This explanation is accomplished with a minimum of missionary advocacy, fanaticism, confusion, and conjuring with vocabulary; a maximum of scholarly care and penetration, clarity, and determination to identify and appraise assumptions and to understand intentions in the scientific and pseudo-scientific writers. The author has read widely, gleaning helpful ideas, evidence, and terminology where he might, without acquiring taboos or falling victim to discipleship. Quotation is heavy, rarely excessive or oppressive, and almost always digested and assimilated. Most important among his explicit sources are Pavlov, Ogden and Richards, Koffka, Head, Korzybski, Bloomfield, Eddington, T. S. Eliot, and Jesperson. For literary examples he favors Conrad, Melville, and Coleridge.

A fundamental value in this book is to be found in the many useful distinctions among words and concepts involved in the study of the nature and uses of language and literature: literary theory, literary criticism, and critical theory, for example; the history of literary theory, the history of criticism, and aesthetics. The handling of the multiple vagaries of the words *literature* and *experience* is careful and clear, and the handling of Professor Pollock's distinctive symbols *experience* (*E*) and *literature* (*L*) is plausible and effective.

"Language," Pollock concludes (p. 47), "is a process whereby the psycho-physiological activity of one person results, because of conditional responses, in the production in a certain time-order of a series of symbols which in turn evoke in another person or in the same individual at a different time psycho-physiological activity similar to, though not identical with, the activity which resulted in the production of the sign-series." The language of science is a "referential symbolism" intended to point only at those "publicly discriminable elements of experience (*E*)." The language of literature is an "evocative symbolism" intended to evoke in the mind of the reader (or hearer) something very close to the original experience in the mind of the writer or speaker. Public speaking of the persuasive sort would, we may suppose, fall, along with propaganda, under that use of language called "pragmatic referential symbolism" where the purpose is to point at a referent and at an attitude toward that referent.

But excerpting is unsatisfactory and unfair where language is by nature so slippery. See for yourself. You will profit.

DONALD C. BRYANT,
Washington University

Roosevelt's Foreign Policy, 1933-1941: Franklin D. Roosevelt's Unedited Speeches and Messages. Compiled and collated by Douglas Lurton. New York: Wilfred Funk, Inc., 1942; pp. xv + 634. $3.75.

It has long been fashionable in certain

quarters to accuse the Roosevelt administration of fumbling, flexing, and faking its foreign policy. The isolationists have assured us that the American people have been misled, that there has been a deliberate misrepresentation of the underlying objectives of our role in foreign affairs. These sinister claims, cunningly insinuated into almost every public and Congressional debate, were dangerous before the tragedy at Pearl Harbor; they may nullify our total war effort today if they are permitted to becloud the honest discussion of the peace that is yet to be won. Perhaps the greatest contribution which can be made by the publication of *Roosevelt's Foreign Policy, 1933-1941,* if the right people can be induced to read it, lies in its presentation of the truth concerning the historical evolution of that policy. In this collection of 352 separate items, embracing public addresses, messages to Congress, executive orders, and White House statements, the discerning reader will trace for himself the straightforward development and public unfolding of the Roosevelt record on national defense and foreign policy. Beginning with the 54 words dedicating this nation to the policy of the "good neighbor" in his first inaugural address of March 4, 1933, down to his final short-wave broadcast of 1941, pledging a redeemed freedom for the people of the Philippines, the chronological record of Franklin D. Roosevelt's unedited speeches and messages reveals a foreign policy consistently seeking peace, but determined to champion the cause of liberty with justice and security. For the "short-of-everything" clique to assert, in the face of this public record, that the American people were ignorant of Roosevelt's true purposes when they voted in 1940 is as absurd as to pretend that Wendell Willkie's campaign speech in Minneapolis left any doubt as to where he stood on foreign policy.

One is tempted to devote a review of this volume to the citing of chapter and verse in refutation of the misrepresentations of the resilient isolationists who have now bounded back into the public forum under the label of nationalists, but the record is clearly set forth in this collection of Roosevelt papers for those who are willing to read it.

Beyond the value of this volume as source material for the process of hammering out our foreign policy on the anvil of public debate is its intrinsic worth as a collection of public addresses and papers of the nation's foremost statesman and molder of public opinion. Probably no other volume has ever been published which so well combines timeliness and pertinence in presenting the complete record of a distinguished public speaker as he has dealt with public affairs in a dramatic and critical period of his nation's history. For the teacher of public speaking it offers a rich lode whose contents assay high; his students should enjoy it for collateral study of content, organization, and style.

This volume is designed for use: it is sturdily bound, its type is easy to read, the speeches are chronologically arranged, and the book is provided with an exceptionally useful index. It is a large book, running well over four hundred thousand words, but its size does not stem from lengthy editorial comments, for it is a collection and not a criticism or an interpretation. The captions of the 352 individual items are, in most cases, self-explanatory, and succinct historical notes are introduced only when necessary.

For the teacher of rhetoric it is important to note that this collection of Roosevelt utterances on foreign policy, 1933-1941, is complete but for the omission of certain "rear platform" and formal political campaign speeches; although they would have added little to the development of the historical movement, their exclusion is to be regretted. In most instances the addresses are presented in full; where this is not the case some care has been taken to indicate omissions.

J. JEFFERY AUER, *Oberlin College*

Voices of History: Great Speeches and Papers of the Year 1941. Edited by Franklin Watts with an introduction by Charles Beard. New York: Franklin Watts, Inc., 1942; pp. xix + 669. $3.50.

In this volume, which is the first of a series of such volumes planned by the editor, are included all the important speeches by the leaders of the world's governments during the year 1941 and also the important official papers of that year. The text of each of the speeches and papers is full and complete with no cutting or revision. Each document is official inasmuch as it was issued by a recognized governmental body. The function of the editor has been merely that of choice and arrangement, there has been no attempt to edit or to interpret. He has arranged the material in chronological order according to the months of the year, prefacing the speeches and papers of each month by a chronology of the important international events of that month.

For the teacher of rhetoric the interest of this volume is of course primarily in the speeches by the year's leading international figures. All the 1941 speeches of Roosevelt are included, all those of Hitler, all Churchill's international broadcasts including his addresses to Parliament on the conduct of the war, his speech before our Congress and that before the Canadian Parliament. There are also speeches by Stalin, Chiang Kai-shek, Hull, Eden, Molotov, Petain, Darlan, Pope Pius XII, Konoye, Matsuoko, Mussolini, Hirohito, Ribbentrop and others. Most of the speeches were delivered over the radio and many are here printed without revision just as they were recorded by the monitoring services of the broadcasting companies. The editor includes, however, one of Hitler's speeches—before the old guard of his party in 1941—which was not broadcast even in Germany. As the Russian counter-attack was making headway, the speech was largely a defensive review of the war with Russia, but the usual threats and promises were also present. The translation of the speech included in this volume is the first to appear in this country. Most of the other speeches have been heard or published in this country in whole or in part. Also of interest to this reviewer because of recent developments in North Africa were two of Vice-Premier Darlan's broadcasts to the French people, one in May and the other in June of 1941.

The reviewer does not wish to leave the impression that the speeches form the bulk of this volume, for they do not. Also included are all the important documents and state papers issued during the year in Germany, England, Russia and Japan as well as in the United States. These are enlightening to read at the present time inasmuch as they make more understandable the events of the year as well as the causes of those events. Together with the speeches they furnish a chronological record of what the governmental officials of all the nations were saying in their efforts to influence public opinion in their own countries as well as in the world at large.

As Dr. Beard says in the *Introduction,* "The voices of history—of the leaders, heroes, rulers, or despots—are a part of history and help in the making of history." Since these addresses and statements, he says, are designed to appeal to the masses and to influence them and while they represent to some extent mass desires, a knowledge of them is therefore essential to "all who wish, in some measure, to understand, lead, teach or act with fullness of knowledge in the tumultuous circumstances of the day or hour."

Here then are the original sources of the history of 1941 arranged to give maximum aid to one who wishes to understand the events of the period. For students of rhetoric this volume should prove a valuable source of material for analysis and criticism.

Charles A. Fritz,
New York University

Playwrights Present. By H. H. Giles and Robert J. Cadigan. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942; pp. xiii + 290. $1.60.

The complete title—*Playwrights Present Problems of Everday Life, A Book of Excerpts from Well-Known Dramas*—expresses what the co-editors have themselves presented, omitting, however, their original and thought-provoking "Call Board," a list of suggestions at the end of each excerpt which inspires impromptu discussion. The total contribution is a most welcome one to all dramatic enthusiasts because it introduces the drama to average young people as a means of clarifying their daily problems.

For a number of reasons, I consider this book a most timely and valuable publication. Today our teen-age pupils are being thrust into actual experience so soon that it is imperative that they be helped to formulate a working philosophy of life with which to meet the complicated problems facing them. *Playwrights Present* offers substantial material for a concrete basis for discussing important issues and attitudes centered on interesting situations and people representing them. It, therefore, encourages constructive and purposeful thinking, talking and writing which can offset much of the purposeless throwing about of words which has frequently and unfortunately been considered "discussion" in so-called progressive educational practice. As a dramatics teacher, I am grateful for a potential means of marshalling new recruits from other departments into our specialized courses suffering from the increasing number of required subjects; I am sure the class reading of scenes from plays in English, general education and social science groups (in all of which this text would be most useful) will inspire students to enroll in the elective dramatic courses.

In the foreword to the student, the authors explain that there are four challenges presented in the dramatic excerpts: to read, enjoy and understand dramatic literature by reading and producing it in class and before other groups; to reveal new horizons and start independent thinking by making a list of all the questions that come to the minds of all participants; to explore and adventure with sources of information suggested in the book; and to present results of this reading, feeling, thinking, questioning and exploring. In the foreword to the teacher, they add the hope that the book will be a treasury for topics for discussion, for related study, and for purposeful activity.

The methods of obtaining these objectives can be illustrated by a selection of a few excerpts listed among the twenty-one in the table of contents: "What Makes Life Worth Living?" from *High Tor* by Maxwell Anderson; "Where Can the Heart's Desire be Found?" from *Beyond the Horizon* by Eugene O'Neill; "Can Money Buy a Happy Life?" from *You Can't Take It With You* by Moss Hart and George S. Kaufman; and "Is Affection to be Measured by Words?" from *King Lear* by William Shakespeare.

The method of using the tremendous appeal of dramatic literature as a means of interpreting life problems is not new to the dramatics teacher, but class production of scenes from plays featuring strongly contrasted characterizations and tempos will introduce students not particularly interested in the drama to the work of our best playwrights and thus give them an interest in the theatre beyond that of mere entertainment. The selections also open up an unlimited field for original creative work in writing and speaking helpful to speech teachers as well as members of all departments. Not all the problems and excerpts will win the approval of all teachers, but I feel the authors have succeeded in presenting a book which realizes their purpose of bringing about closer relationships between students and teachers and giving fresh significance to the life of the school in terms of the world outside.

KATHARINE ANNE OMMANNEY,
North High School, Denver

A Theory of Meaning Analyzed. General Semantics Monographs, Number III. Chicago: Institute of General Semantics, 1942; pp. xvi and 46. $1.50.

A Theory of Meaning Analyzed is a contribution in general semantics. This volume consists of two papers from the Second American Congress on General Semantics and of a supplementary paper on lexicography. These papers apply Korzybski's formulations to specific problems of communication, "meaning," interpretation, and proper evaluation. Several of these problems are of particular interest to students of speech. Among other things, the critiques of I. A. Richards' theories of language, literature, and poetic value are at least first steps toward clarification of the relation between the Korzybski formulations and the artistic aspects of speech.

The title of the volume is derived from the first paper, "A Theory of Meaning Analyzed: A Critique of I. A. Richards' Theory of Language and Literature" by Thomas Clark Pollock. The critique is a detailed examination of Richards' writings. Pollock concludes from this examination that classification of language uses into "symbolic" and "emotive" led Richards into elementalistic pitfalls. At one point Pollock says, "The theory of the uses of language presented in *The Meaning of Meanings* was organized with the controlling purpose of providing a basis, *not* for the study of literature, but for the analysis of scientific communication" (p. 11). Later he adds, "The general structure and the key-terms are designed for the analysis of the 'symbolic' use of language. As a consequence, the definition of the 'non-symbolic' or 'emotive' use is forced to accommodate itself to the theoretical position which remains . . . the resulting analysis of the 'emotive' use, which certainly is intended to include poetry and apparently also 'other literary experiences,' is almost inevitably unsatisfactory" (pp. 18-19).

John Gordon Spaulding's paper on "Elemantalism: The Effect of an Implicit Postulate of Identity on I. A. Richards' Theory of Poetic Values" supplements Pollock's critique. Spaulding presents evidence to show that "Mr. I. A. Richards, a foremost modern writer on aesthetic theory, introduces, unawares, an identity postulate into the structure of his theory because of conventions in the structure of our everyday language . . . elementalism results in his theory as a consequence of this postulate . . . elementalism is contrary to his express statements regarding his intention and regarding psychological facts" (p. 27). The foregoing leads, according to Spaulding, to an unreal classification of poetry as a form of language. This unreal classification can be avoided if one discards the identity postulate.

"The Lexicographer and General Semantics" by Allen Walker Read is a report of the writer's plan to prepare a semantic dictionary orientated for present-day users. The significance of this paper, however, is its analysis of the role which conventional dictionaries have in codifying relations between words and life-facts. The person who reads this paper will gain new insight into both the limitations and strengths of conventional dictionaries.

In conclusion, the student of speech will find the papers mentioned above at once stimulating and unsatisfying. Dissatisfaction springs from the fact that fuller applications of the Korzybski formulations to the artistic aspects of Speech are merely implied. These applications have yet to be expanded and put into definite statement. Nevertheless, the student who is interested in General Semantics will find that these papers contain analyses which will add to his background for relating General Semantics to Speech.

RAYMOND CARHART,
Northwestern University

Speech Correction on the Contract Plan. By RUTH MANSER. Rev. ed. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942; pp. xix + 381. $3.00.

The book is divided into four major parts: Part I. "Physiology of the Vocal Mechanism," followed by a discussion of voice problems; Part II. "Physiology of the Speech Mechanism" (organs of articulation), followed by an account of the English sounds, and including functional and organic defects and emotional disorders; Part III, "Exercises," for all types of speech differences; and Part IV, "Contracts."

The organization of the book is highly commendable as it serves for the speech correctionist as a dictionary and work book combined. The exercises are well worked out giving due emphasis to the contract aspect for the student.

Although the word lists and related literature are not original, they are well chosen and adapted to the needs of the articulatory speech defective.

The book does have a developmental sequence of the practice exercises. Certainly automatic management of adequate sound formation cannot be attained without constant drills and exercises for those who are in need of it.

The reviewer would take exception to one phase of the book in particular. This pertains however to only a small part of the entire production. I refer to the discussion of "Stammering." In the first place, the more commonly understood word for tonic and clonic blocks is "stuttering." Secondly, the research into the etiology of this disorder indicates that its emotional aspect is a secondary development and not a primary cause. Therefore the word "cure" on page 61 is somewhat out of place. Thirdly, pages 279-296 list the exercises for stammerers, and in the experience of the reviewer, phonetic exercises such as are recommended for articulatory cases do little or nothing for the "stutterer," whose basic problem appears to be neurologic and his secondary problem that of emotional maladjustment.

If one makes the assumption (and it might be a dangerous one) that "stammering" is an emotional problem, one should logically proceed, therapeutically, with a program of mental hygiene. This the author does not do. The therapy she recommends is speech exercises. This appears to the reviewer as faulty logic.

It might also be pointed out that the "articulation" phase of the book is lacking in *direct* auditory stimulation of the defective sounds. Many articulatory cases respond to this type of therapy without the need of any phonetic drill. Neither does the author recommend any mental hygiene for the articulatory cases. Many of them do have maladjustments not only around their disorder but also in other related areas of their personality. For a therapy to be a completely rounded one it would seem to be essential that the entire person be treated.

The book has its most useful application for specific types of articulatory problems and foreign accents.

BRYNG BRYNGELSON,
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Speech in a Democracy. By HEROLD T. ROSS and CLARENCE C. SHOEMAKER. Boston: Expression Co., 1942; pp. 276. $2.50.

This textbook for high school use deals largely with platform speaking. The general emphasis of the volume is clear from the table of contents. About half of the 22 pages of Part I, headed "Voice and Diction," are devoted to voice and diction. The other half consists of an inspirational chapter on the importance of public speaking and a general analysis of the speech situation. Part II, 43 pages in length, deals with "Preparation and Delivery of the Speech." Part III, 41 pages long, is called "Elements of Speech Composition" and Part IV, running 108 pages in length, is devoted to "Kinds of Speeches." It seems clear from this distribution of subject-matter that the authors intend the book for use in courses concerned with rather detailed study of public speaking, debating, and discussion.

The first chapter is an effectively written statement of the basic importance of freedom of speech, and of the importance of effective speaking as training for citizenship in a democratic society and as a source of personal satisfaction. The second chapter gives the reader a bird's-eye view of the speech situation, indicating the possible influence of the occasion, the speaker, the speech and the audience. In this preliminary discussion of the speaker's rôle, emphasis is placed on traits of personality and character such as sincerity, modesty, friendliness, liveliness and tact. Following these introductory chapters is a discussion of use of the voice, based on an article by Dr. P. M. Marafioti. It is suggested that a pupil memorize an eight-line poem in Italian so he "will automatically find his voice naturally placed in its physiological center, in the mouth." The final chapter of this section, entitled "Your Diction," advocates use of the standard of speech which prevails among educated persons in the local community and includes a few examples of over-assimilation and mispronunciation.

Part II, "Preparation and Delivery of the Speech," is a conventional summary, simplified for secondary school readers, of the topics indicated by the chapter heading "Purpose and Subject," "Gathering Material," "Selection and Arrangement," "Composing and Absorbing the Speech," "Language Style," and "Delivery of the Speech." The authors conclude that, in view of the hazards of writing out and memorizing a speech and the difficulties and imperfections associated with extemporaneous speech, the best compromise is what might be labelled memorized extemporaneous paragraphs. The beginner is advised to rehearse a brief section of his speech from notes until satisfied to write out what he has been saying, finally memorizing the speech developed by this technique. In general, the recommendations of this section of the book are in agreement with most of the college texts.

The discussion of "Elements of Speech Composition" in Part III emphasizes the use of description, narration, exposition and argumentation in speaking as contrasted with writing. There is a liberal use of illustrations, many of them from student speeches. Similar use of student speeches as illustrative material is continued in Part IV, which offers both a general explanation and a suggested general outline for various types of speeches. Brief chapters on debating, radio speaking and discussion summarize these techniques. In a final chapter on "Speech Forms in a Democracy," the authors hold that three American institutions have fostered eloquence in speech, namely, legislative assemblies, law courts, and political conventions. The chapter is accordingly devoted to detailed suggestions for carrying on a student legislative assembly, a student court and a classroom parallel of a national convention. Emphasis is on the rudiments of parliamentary procedure connected with these activities.

Speech in a Democracy seems well-adapted to courses devoted primarily to instruction in elementary speechmaking.

WALTER H. WILKIE,
New York University

IN THE PERIODICALS

DORIS G. YOAKAM, *Editor*

RHETORIC, PUBLIC ADDRESS, AND RADIO

BAVELAS, ALEX, "Civilian Morale: Leaders Can Be Made," *Frontiers of Democracy*, IX (November 15, 1942), 47-48, 61.

If local defense groups are to be stimulated into increased activity for civilian morale, leadership must be encouraged. The author of this article believes that almost everyone can learn how to become a good leader, though not everyone can become a "leader-genius." A leader must be trained to use techniques of group management that are effective.

CERF, WALTER, "Freedom of Instruction in War Time," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Winter, 1942), 576-587.

How far can an educational institution go in allowing its faculty members to express ideas that may be detrimental to the war effort? Freedom of speech, as it is related to teacher and student, public control and freedom of instruction, is discussed in this article, and an attempt is made to point "the way toward a sound program designed to counteract indoctrination and teach the student to think for himself."

CHERINGTON, PAUL T., "Our Freedoms and Our Opinions," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Winter, 1942), 617-621.

Suggestions of methods for restoring voice to democracy are made in this article, for "to anyone who believes that democracy is anything more than a name it is a matter for serious concern that so many means available for shaping and controlling public opinion have been strengthened and modernized, while the means for expressing this opinion and giving it contact with government processes have remained primitive or at least medieval. It is a challenge to American inventive ingenuity to devise ways for curing democracy of inarticulation."

CULVER, REV. ROBERT D., "The Kind of Preaching that Wins!" *Moody Monthly*, XLIII (January, 1943), 280, 325.

If preaching is to remain persuasive, it must continue to find its source in the Word of God and its theme in Christ, in spite of the seemingly momentous subjects suggested by current events and social evils.

FAUGHT, PATRICIA and MILLARD, "The Old-Fashioned Town Meeting," *Think*, VIII (November, 1942), 24, 43.

This article describes the town hall of a New England small town and tells of the numerous activities centered there.

GUERRERO, PILAR RAVELO, "The Voice of Freedom is on the Air," *Philippines*, II (November, 1942), 100.

One of the special services of the Overseas Division of the Office of War Information is the radio service of the Philippine Department, whose object is to send programs of information, inspiration and guidance across the Pacific to the "Filamericans."

ROUCEK, JOSEPH S., "Hitler's Propaganda as a War Weapon," *The Educational Forum*, VII (November, 1942), 67-83.

The author discusses the "problem of power over opinion," and Hitler's use of "psychological" armament.

SMITH, JEANETTE SAYRE, "Broadcasting for Marginal Americans," *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, VI (Winter, 1942), 588-603.

Foreign language broadcasting programs are at least a decade old and yet little is known about the character of their effect upon listeners. A study of programs offered to 20,000 Italians in the North End of Boston reveals that the radio has failed to assume its responsibility in integrating its audience into the war effort in this city. The solution is not to stop these Italian broadcasts, but to "adopt a constructive attitude toward their public."

DRAMA AND INTERPRETATION

BRANDENBURG, ALICE STAYERT, "The Dynamic Image in Metaphysical Poetry," *P.M.L.A.*, LVII (December, 1942), 1039-1045.

This article analyzes the "dynamic image" which the author believes is "the underlying quality that appears to connect many of the seemingly unrelated features of metaphysical poetry."

BRINNIN, JOHN MALCOLM, "Muriel Rukeyser: The Social Poet and the Problem of Communication," *Poetry*, LXI (January, 1943), 554-575.

Recent trends in poetry are discussed as revealed in the three volumes of poetry published by Muriel Rukeyser between 1930 and 1939.

CAMPBELL, OSCAR JAMES, "What is the Matter with Hamlet?" *The Yale Review*, XXXII (Winter, 1943), 309-322.

The author of this article deals with analysis of the character of Hamlet and with the implications involved.

CORSON, RICHARD V., "Makeup for the Theatre," *The Players Magazine*, XIX (December, 1942), 7-8, 20.

Suggestions are offered by the author of this article for improving techniques in the art of makeup.

ELSON, CHARLES, "Your Theatre and the War," *The Players Magazine*, XIX (January, 1943), 9-10, 25-26.

Theatre does a great deal to bolster morale among the men of our armed forces, particularly those in reception centers. Many people of the theatre want to help in the war effort, but do not know where to begin. This article offers suggestions for setting up programs and for financing such ventures. Experience shows that a tremendously eager audience is waiting. The people of the theatre must not "let this audience down."

HOUK, RAYMOND A., "The Evolution of *The Taming of the Shrew*," *P.M.L.A.*, LVII (December, 1942), 1009-1038.

Authorship of two different versions of the play is presented for analysis in this article.

ISAACS, EDITH J. R., "The Critical Arena IV. The Playwright as Critic: G. B. S., *Theatre Arts*, XXVI (December, 1942), 755-762.

The capability of playwrights as dramatic critics is the subject discussed in this article.

KLANCAR, ANTHONY J., "The Dramatic Literature of Yugoslavia," *Poet Lore*, XLVIII (Winter, 1942), 305-310.

Dramatic literature flourished in Yugoslavia as early as the fifteenth century. The great creative spirit of the Yugoslavs in this field guarantees the future of their theatre.

LEHMAN, VIRGINIA PIERCE, "A Marionette Show," *School Arts*, XLII (January, 1943), 155.

This article presents illustrations and descriptions of marionettes made by an eighth grade art class in Weslaco, Texas.

PHILLIPS, R. HART, "Drama and Burlesque on Cuban Stage," *The Inter-American*, II (January, 1943), 24-25.

Efforts in dramatic production at the University of Havana date back only a little more than a year, but they have awakened considerable enthusiasm for the theatre among Cubans. An excellent foundation is being laid for a national theatre for Cuba.

ROTH, WOLFGANG, "A Designer Goes Camping," *The Players Magazine*, XIX (December, 1942), 11-12.

A New York professional designer tells of her experiences in an adult's camp theatre.

SAVAGE, D. S., "Poetry and Nature," *Poetry*, LXI (December, 1942), 496-504.

Our mechanistic age tends to circumscribe the creativeness of the poet.

STOKES, SEWELL, "Robert Morley," *Theatre Arts*, XXVI (December, 1942), 779-784.

A discussion of Robert Morley's idiosyncrasies and talents as an actor forms the content of this article.

WADE, ROBERT J., "Wartime Settings in Planned Economy," *The Players Magazine*, XIX (January, 1943), 7-8.

The author attempts to answer the problem of carrying on theatre activities under war situations without lowering standards or interfering with the war effort.

ZUCKER, A. E., "Goethe and Ibsen's Button-Moulder," *P.M.L.A.*, LVII (December, 1942), 1101-1107.

The author of this article analyzes the character of the Button-moulder, a minor figure in *Peer Gynt*, and shows how this person embodies Ibsen's ideas regarding immortality. In *Peer Gynt* Ibsen reveals the influence of his study of Goethe.

SPEECH SCIENCE

ANONYMOUS, "Disc Boom," *Radio Retailing Today* (November, 1942), 20.

Commercial recording is undergoing a boom season with the increasing popularity of sending records to men in military training centers.

ANONYMOUS, "Recording Clicks," *Radio Retailing Today* (December, 1942), 20.

Another testimony is added to confirm the popularity of making records as soldiers and civilians "write letters in wax." Commercial recording firms are advised to build up the quantity of their business at popular prices rather than to try to realize profit on each customer.

BOONE, ANDREW R., "Producing Sound Effects," *Radio News,* XXIX (January, 1943), 20-21, 76-77.

New techniques and special recordings are necessary in order to make radio military shows realistic.

CAULDWELL, EARL W. and BARRY J. ANSON, "Stapes, Fistula, Ante Fenestram and Associated Structures in Man," *Archives of Otolaryngology,* XXXVI (December, 1942), 891-925.

This article details stapedial history through the stages at which the cartilage assumes definitely its stirrup-shaped form.

FOWLER, EDMUND PRINCE, "A Simple Method of Measuring Percentage of Capacity for Hearing Speech," *Archives of Otolaryngology,* XXXVI (December, 1942), 874-890.

The author outlines and explains a method for measuring the percentage of capacity for hearing speech which has as its advantages a sensible and simple allowance for the relative importance of the speech frequencies in understanding speech, an equitable care of the changing binaural ratio of hearing loss with different degrees of deafness and with slight and pronounced differences in the hearing of the two ears, a means of taking care of the discrepancies in hearing speech in cases of nerve and conduction deafness, and a cognizance of the considered judgment of hundreds of normal and hard of hearing persons.

JONES, MARVIN FISHER, "The Autonomic Nervous System in Health and Disease," *Transactions American Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology* (November-December, 1942), 65-74.

The nature and function of the autonomic nervous system is described in this article. Included is an explanation of the effect of drugs and of emotional disturbance upon the autonomic system.

MOODY, WILLARD, "Microphones—How to Use Them," *Radio News,* XXIX (January, 1943), 38-39, 72.

This article tells of different kinds of microphones, their designs, practicalities and defects.

WOOLSEY, CLINTON N., and EDWARD M. WALZL, "Topical Projection of Nerve Fibers from Local Regions of the Cochlea to the Cerebral Cortex of the Cat," *Bulletin of the Johns Hopkins Hospital,* LXXI (December, 1942), 315-344.

The authors present information found in experiments made upon fourteen young adult cats "to determine directly by physiological methods the manner in which cochlear nerve fibers in the osseous spiral lamina project to the auditory area of the cerebral cortex."

PHONETICS AND SPEECH USAGE

BOLTON, FLOYD B., "A Study of Vocabulary Growth in the Social Studies," *Social Education,* VII (January 1943), 17-18.

Vocabulary tests administered by the author of this study show that the social-science vocabularies of junior and senior high school pupils tend to increase even if they take no social-science, but that the greater the amount of course work they take the greater is the growth of their social-science vocabularies.

GIBSON, DANIEL, "Pedagogues and Pedagese," *The American Scholar,* XII (Winter, 1942-1943), 92-104.

The author of this article asks "Is it necessary, this huge incumbrance called Webster's *Unabridged?*" and adds, "There are now, I am told, over 600,000 words in the English language and new ones coined daily. Shakespeare employed less than a fortieth of that many words, Milton even fewer, and they expressed themselves fairly well."

HESTER, KATHLEEN B., "A Study of Phonetic Difficulties in Reading," *The Elementary School Journal,* XLIII (November, 1942), 171-173.

A study of 194 children admitted to the Reading Laboratory at the University of Pittsburgh because of reading problems reveals that skill in word analysis does not come without specific training. Children must have some concept of "letter sounds," or they will be unable to attack new words independently when the other methods fail.

KANDEL, I. L., "The English-Speaking World in the War and the Peace," *Teachers College Record,* XLIV (December, 1942), 151-159.

The coincidence that British people and Americans speak the same language may serve as a handicap to our good neighbor policy. There is a tendency among Americans "when we meet or study people who speak our tongue to expect them to be exactly like ourselves, and when we discover that this is not the case, we are inclined to minimize similarities and exaggerate differences."

MARCKWARDT, ALBERT H., "Middle English *WA* in the Speech of the Great Lakes Region," *American Speech,* XVII (December, 1942), 226-234.

Results of a study of the behavior of the *wa* combination in American speech, as found in field records from forty-five different communities in Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Illinois and Wisconsin, are presented in this article.

SCHETTLER, CLARENCE, "Does Your Name Identify You?" *Social Forces,* XXI (December, 1942), 172-176.

Surnames have lost much of the preciseness of identification they possessed in earlier days. Almost innumerable complications are found in spelling as well as with difficulty of pronunciation. The author of this article tells about recording information on the characteristics of the 607 persons who changed their names in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, between June 5, 1939 and August 22, 1940, and on the reasons why the names were changed.

SHAFER, ROBERT, "The Pronunciation of Spanish Place Names in California," *American Speech,* XVII (December, 1942), 239-246.

Californians ridicule Easterners who mispronounce the names of California towns and places, little realizing how much error they make in their own attempts to adhere to Spanish pronunciations.

TIDWELL, JAMES NATHAN, "Mark Twain's Representation of Negro Speech, *American Speech,* XVII (October, 1942), 174-176.

The author tells of a study of negro dialect as painstakingly represented by Mark Twain in the *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn.*

WOHLMANN, REGINE F., "Very First Words," *Parents' Magazine,* XVII (December, 1942), 18, 76-77.

Mothers should expect to find certain characteristics in their babies during the babble period and try to be helpful during the period of transition from babbling to more articulate speech.

PSYCHOLOGY AND PATHOLOGY OF SPEECH

BENDER, LAURETTA, "Neuropsychiatric Contributions to the Mental Hygiene Problems of the Exceptional Child," *Mental Hygiene,* XXVI (October, 1942), 617-630.

This article tells of observations noted during neuropsychiatric treatment of organically handicapped children possessing severe behavior disorders.

BENEDICT, EDWARD B., "Bronchial Obstruction and Tracheobronchial Tuberculosis," *The New England Journal of Medicine,* CCXXVII (December 31, 1942), 1013-1021.

The clinical picture in bronchial obstruction may lead to erroneous presumptive diagnosis as to whether the etiology is cancer, benign tumor or tuberculosis. Bronchoscopy with biopsy or smear is necessary in order to establish a positive diagnosis.

BRICKNER, RICHARD M., "Who Are the Psychiatric 4 F's?" *Mental Hygiene,* XXVI (October, 1942), 641-645.

A psychoneurosis is not a mental or physical disease. Communities should not ostracize men who have been rejected from military service because of psychoneuroses. These men may be perfectly useful as civilians in spite of emotional imbalances that render them unfit for military service.

CAMERON, DALE C., "The Rorschach Experiment—X-Ray of Personality," *Diseases of the Nervous System,* III (November, 1942), 374-376.

The Rorschach experiment is an objective way to study personality and shows underlying structures which make behavior understandable.

CARROLL, HERBERT A., "Mental Hygiene Problems in Times of War," *The Educational Forum,* VII (November, 1942), 17-21.

Maladjustments of children and adolescents are results of frustrations experienced in attempts to satisfy fundamental emotional needs. They are not, for the most part, results of war conditions.

CARUTHERS, S. B., "X-ray Therapy in the Treatment of Deafness," *The Mississippi Doctor,* XX (December, 1942), 307-315.

Irradiation therapy, either by radium or X-ray, is beneficial to children with conduction hearing loss whether they experience recurrent lymphoid tissue growth or not. On the other hand, adults with impaired hearing cannot expect much help from this type of treatment unless they have excessive adenoid tissue.

COFER, CHARLES N., and JOHN P. FOLEY, JR., "Mediated Generalization and the Interpretation of Verbal Behavior: I. Prolegomena," *Psychological Review,* XLIX (November, 1942), 513-540.

This article presents the theoretical background of a study concerned with an attempt "(1) to extend the objective principles derived from conditioned response experimentation to certain aspects of linguistic behavior, and (2) to show how such an interpretation of language behavior throws light on other psychological phenomena in which language plays an important role."

CRAIG, WINCHELL MCK., "The Reaction of the Central Nervous System to Trauma," *Rocky Mountain Medical Journal,* L (January, 1943), 18-27.

It is important for the physician to keep in mind the possibility of latent as well as immediate symptoms in every case of trauma to the head or to the central nervous system, no matter how trivial the injury may appear to be.

DECKER, RUSSELL M., "Relation of the Eustachian Tube to Chronic Progressive Deafness," *Archives of Otolaryngology,* XXXVI (December, 1942), 926-936.

The author discusses factors which play an important part in the obstructions of the eustachian tube which may cause hearing difficulties.

EHRENFIELD, HUGO J., "Changing Character Through Corrective Surgery," *Medical Record,* CLV (December, 1942), 531-533.

Physical appearance is an important factor in the psychic life of an individual. Corrective surgery is a powerful aid in many psychiatric cases.

FEDERN, PAUL, "Some Suggestions on the Mental Hygiene of Soldiers," *Mental Hygiene,* XXVI (October, 1942), 554-559.

The private life of an individual goes on in spite of his environment and is as important as the exigencies of war. The importance of morale in the present war cannot be overestimated.

FORD, CLELLAN S., "Culture and Human Behavior," *The Scientific Monthly,* LV (December, 1942), 546-557.

Problems in human behavior arise when the "drive specifications" are not immediately met by the existing situation. The solution comes with finding a way to change the conditions of the situation so that they will bring about a rewarding situation.

FRENKEL-BRUNSWICK, ELSE, "Motivation and Behavior," *Genetic Psychology Monographs,* XXVI (November, 1942), 121-265.

This study presents interpretations of behavior as found in analyzing personality data of all kinds gleaned from the records of a hundred pupils of a large coeducational school in California.

FRY, CLEMENTS C., "The Psychiatrist's Place in College," *Hygeia,* XX (December, 1942), 906-907, 948-950.

It is possible to eliminate much waste in human material and energy during college years if the emotional problems of students can be prevented or at least helped.

GELEERD, ELISABETH R., "Psychiatric Care of Children in Wartime," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry,* XII (October, 1942), 587-593.

War situations which may threaten injury to the development of the child are discussed in this article.

GORDON, HANS C., and PHILIP DAVIDOFF, "Honesty of Pupils in Answering Adjustment Questionnaires," *School and Society,* LVII (Saturday, January 9, 1943), 54-56.

After administering the Washburne Social Adjustment Inventory to the ninth grade of eight Philadelphia junior high schools, the author set about exploring reasons for student inaccuracy in answering questions.

GREENE, JAMES SONNETT, "Atypical Laryngeal and Vocal Changes in Adolescence," *The Journal of the American Medical Association,* CXX (December 12, 1942), 1193-1197.

Speech disorders may be precipitated during adolescent years, but conditions giving rise to these malfunctions have been developing before the beginning of the stresses and strains of adolescence. Pediatricians should watch for disorders in the making, and they should initiate preventive treatment early.

HADLEY, HENRY G., "Myasthenia Gravis Including Case Report and Neurological Autopsy," *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease,* XCVII (January, 1943), 6-10.

This article delineates symptoms and involvements found in myasthenia gravis.

HARVEY, VERNE K., and E. PARKER LUONGO, "The Physically Handicapped in Industrial Establishments of the Government," *The Journal of The American Medical Association,* CXXI (January 9, 1943), 100-107.

Studies conducted by the United States Civil Service Commission reveal that there are thousands of jobs in industrial establishments of the government that can be filled by judicious placement of physically handicapped persons.

KRAMER, RALPH, "The Conceptual Status of Social Disorganization," *The American Journal of Sociology,* XLVIII (January, 1943), 466-474.

The author attempts to explain social disorganization using basic approaches that emphasize economics, cultural lag, semantics, psychiatry and group breakdown.

LENZ, MAURICE, "Roentgen Therapy of Primary Cancer of the Nasopharynx," *The American Journal of Roentgenology,* XLVIII (December, 1942), 816-832.

Roentgen therapy, as detailed in this article, has proven efficacious in the treatment of cancer of the nasopharynx.

MCFARLAND, JOSEPH, "The Mysterious Mixed Tumors of the Salivary Glands," *Surgery, Gynecology and Obstetrics,* LXXVI (January, 1943), 23-34.

This article deals with definitions, histological structure and involvements of mixed tumors of the salivary glands.

MCHENRY, L. CHESTER, "Some Observations on the Maxillary Sinus," *Southern Medical Journal,* XXXVI (January, 1943), 18-21.

The records of eighty consecutive cases of maxillary sinus infection serve as the basis for this discussion of treatment of the infection.

MENENDEZ, FRANCISCO J., and PEDRO HERNANDEZ GONZALO, "Tuberculous Tracheobronchitis," *Diseases of the Chest,* VIII (December, 1942), 382-391.

The authors report on clinical observations of six cases of bronchial tuberculosis.

MORENO, FLORENCE B., "Sociometric Status of Children in a Nursery School Group," *Sociometry,* V (November, 1942), 395-411.

A study of the social status among children of pre-school age leads to a better understanding of inter-personal relationships at this age level.

OLIVER, WRENSHALL A., "The Recognition of Early Parkinsonism," *United States Naval Medical Bulletin,* XLI (January, 1943), 111-114.

The early manifestations of Parkinson's syndrome, and methods for recognizing them are described in this article.

RIEZLER, KURT, "Comment on the Social Psychology of Shame," *The American*

Journal of Sociology, XLVIII (January, 1943), 457-465.

The author presents definitions and explanations of the phenomenon known as shame, and tells of its effect upon the psychology of the individual.

SIMONSON, ERNEST, and NOBERT ENZER, "Physiology of Muscular Exercise and Fatigue in Disease," *Medicine,* XXI (December, 1942), 345-419.

A discussion of respiratory function is included in this study of muscular exercise and fatigue in disease.

SKAGGS, E. B., "Some Critical Comments on Theory of Personality," *Psychological Review,* XLIX (November, 1942), 600-606.

This article deals with problems found in studying the nature and development of personality.

SMITH, HAROLD D., "Ten Million Deafened," *Hygeia,* XXI (January, 1943), 24-25, 61.

The author of this article believes that seventy-five per cent of all deafness in this country could have been prevented if treatment had been initiated early enough.

TAYLOR, H. MARSHALL, "Neurological Complications of Serum Sickness with Special Reference to the Ear," *The Laryngoscope,* LII (December, 1942), 923-932.

The otologist should keep in mind otological implications in serum sickness, and remember that foreign serums administered in curative and preventive treatment may affect adversely both the somatic and the sympathetic nervous systems.

TEITELBAUM, HARRY A., "An Analysis of the Disturbances of the Higher Cortical Functions, Agnosia, Apraxia and Aphasia," *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease,* XCVII (January, 1943), 44-61.

This article is concerned with the six categories of cortical function and with their disturbances.

TIMBERLAKE, JOSEPHINE B., "Quality in Hearing Aids," *Journal of Exceptional Children,* IX (December, 1942), 74-78, 86.

The author tells of personal experiences in testing the quality of hearing aids.

UTTER, HENRY E., "Fears of Infancy and Early Childhood," *Rhode Island Medical Journal,* XXV (December, 1942), 241-246.

The fears of infancy and early childhood may be divided into several different categories. An intelligent and clever mother is the best assistant in conquering these early fears.

WALKER, KENNETH F., "The Nature and Explanation of Behavior," *Psychological Review,* XLIX (November, 1942), 569-585.

A stereotyped explanation of environment often impedes the psychologist from dealing correctly with behavior problems.

WATSON, WILLIAM L., "Cancer of Trachea," *The Journal of Thoracic Surgery,* XII (December, 1942), 142-150.

The importance of follow-up examinations in carcinoma of the trachea is illustrated in the case history of the patient described in this article.

WELCH, LIVINGSTON, and LOUIS LONG, "Methods Used by Children in Solving Inductive Reasoning Problems," *The Journal of Psychology,* XIV (October, 1942), 269-275.

Thirty children were presented tests involving three methods of inductive reasoning. Most of the children were able to keep the principle separate even when the methods were presented in random order.

WILLIAMS, PHILLIP E., "The Care and Treatment of Facial Injuries from a Military Aspect," *The Military Surgeon,* XCI (December, 1942), 650-659.

The author of this article tells of types of facial injuries encountered in the war and of procedures to be followed in treatment of these injuries.

WOLF, ANNA W. M., "Inside a Consultation Service," *Child Study,* XX (Fall, 1942), 10-13, 28-29.

A discussion of the reasons why parents come to a consultation service and of the kinds of problems they bring constitutes the content of this article.

YOUNG, F. H., "Diagnosis and Treatment of Respiratory Diseases," *The Practitioner,* CXLIX (October, 1942), 202-208.

Respiratory diseases and their incidence in the present war are discussed in this article.

SPEECH PEDAGOGY

Abney, Louise, "Speech and the Classroom Teacher: Some Specific Suggestions," *The Elementary English Review,* XIX (December, 1942), 298-300.

The author lists classroom aids in speech as used in a fifth grade classroom in Kansas City.

Bowen, Margaret, "Children with Problems," *The American Journal of Nursing,* XLII (November, 1942), 1262-1268.

Nursery techniques may be used to advantage in dealing with older children who have infantile behavior patterns.

Brown, Andrew W., "Services of Psychological Clinics for the Physically Handicapped," *Journal of Exceptional Children,* IX (December, 1942), 66-73.

Diagnostic service and vocational guidance are but two of the functions of psychological clinics in handling the problems of the physically handicapped.

Bruce, Lula M., *et. al.,* "Speech Reading in Schools for the Deaf," *The Volta Review,* XLIV (November, 1942), 614-617, 656, 658.

A Committee on Speech Reading of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf makes suggestions looking to the improvement of speech reading in the schools.

Bunger, Anne M., "A Challenge to Colleges and Universities," *The Volta Review,* XLIV (October, 1942), 549-553, 594, 596.

The supervisor of lip reading instruction in the Horace H. Rackham School of Special Education describes services extended to students with defective hearing at Michigan State Normal College in Ypsilanti.

Chittenden, Gertrude E., "A Stutterer is What You Make Him!" *Hygeia,* XXI (January, 1943), 68-69.

The author describes the case of Peter, a five year old stutterer, whose parents only hindered when they tried to help him; and then tells of some of the aids that are given to stutterers by speech specialists.

Cronbach, Lee J., "An Analysis of Techniques for Diagnostic Vocabulary Testing," *Journal of Educational Research,* XXXVI (November, 1942), 206-217.

After reviewing the literature on diagnostic vocabulary testing the author concludes that such testing needs more valid instruments of measurement.

Fitzsimmons, Margaret, "Treatment of Problems of Dependency Related to Permanent Physical Handicaps," *The Family Journal of Social Case Work,* XXIII (January, 1943), 329-336.

Suggestions are offered to social workers for helping the individual who has permanent physical handicaps and who exhibits marked dependency traits.

Gates, Arthur I., "Diagnosis and Remediation in Reading," *The Elementary English Review,* XIV (December, 1942), 286-290.

This article notes trends of practice in diagnosis and treatment of reading problems.

Grey, Lennox, "Communication and War: An Urgent Letter to English Teachers," *The English Journal,* XXXII (January, 1943), 12-19.

English teachers must mobilize and take the initiative if preparation in communication, as one of the most crucial services of the war, is to be their contribution to men of the armed forces.

Griffen, Lowell L., "An Improved Method for Scoring the Pressey X-O Test," *The Journal of Applied Psychology,* XXVI (December, 1942), 841-845.

Pressey X-O Tests can be used to a greater extent than they now are if certain technical improvements are made that render scoring of the test more economical and efficient.

Hall, Jack V., "Oral Aids to Problem-Solving," *The Elementary School Journal,* XLIII (December, 1942), 220-224.

An experiment using oral discussion of life situations served to motivate interest in solving arithmetic problems in the intermediate grades of a defense area school.

Hauptmann, Alfred, "Group Therapy for Psychoneuroses," *Diseases of the Nervous System,* IV (January, 1943), 22-25.

The author describes advantages found for patients and psychiatrists in group therapy as originated by Joseph H. Pratt.

JESSEMAN, VICTORIA, "Use of Residual Hearing," *American Annals of the Deaf,* LXXXVII (November, 1942), 408-414.

Suggestions for utilizing residual hearing in teaching hard of hearing children are made in this article.

KAWIN, ETHEL, "Guidance of Children in Wartime," *Childhood Education,* XIX (December, 1942), 158-163.

A six point program for the guidance of children during the war and in preparation for the peace is delineated in this article.

KNAUER, MARGARET RAY and JAMES ERVIN, "Steps in Introducing the Study of Poetry," *California Journal of Secondary Education,* XVII (November, 1942), 429-433.

The study of poetry should be enjoyable and profitable for both teacher and student. The authors of this article suggest a plan for accomplishing these objectives.

KOPEL, DAVID, "The Student Background Inventory: A Guidance Device," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* XXVIII (October, 1942), 529-535.

The student background inventory outlined in this article should be of help to the teacher in becoming acquainted with students and in being of service to them.

LEIGH, JEAN W., "Emotional Stability for the Deaf Child," *The Volta Review,* XLIV (December, 1942), 685-688, 724.

The war has brought new problems to the deaf child. The author of this article emphasizes methods for preparing the deaf child for emergencies.

MARQUIT, SYVIL and ABRAHAM B. BERMAN, "Psychological Techniques and Mechanisms in Guidance," *The Journal of General Psychology,* XXVII (October, 1942), 231-240.

It is important that the psychologist adapt his efforts to the practical needs of the patient and that he also cooperate with those who may occupy positions of responsibility in the case.

MEAD, MARGARET, "War Need Not Mar Our Children," *The Journal of Educational Sociology,* XVI (December, 1942), 195-201.

If children are to be protected from the war and its effects, American adults must cultivate the belief that greater contact with facts of life and death are not, in themselves, injurious to children.

NEW, MARY C., *et. al.,* "Nursery Schools for Deaf Children," *The Volta Review,* XLIV (December, 1942), 681-683, 718.

The Committee on Pre-School Work of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf sets forth in its report a review of what has been found to be of value in the existing nursery schools, and offers recommendations for improvement.

SCHMIDT, BERNADINE G., "Reading Habits and Interests of Mentally Retarded Girls," *The Elementary English Review,* XIX (December, 1942), 273-281.

A program attempting to develop an effective reading program for retarded girls is reported in this article.

SHAFFER, CHESTER MONROE, "The Kinesthetic Method of Speech Development and Speech-Reading," *American Annals of the Deaf,* LXXXVII (November, 1942), 421-442.

The author presents an "integrated method" of teaching speech development and speech reading to the deaf and hard of hearing.

SHAW, ROBERT S., "Must College Professors Be Introverts?" *School and Society,* LVI (Saturday, December 5, 1942), 552-553.

The research work necessary for advanced degrees leads teachers away from the kind of work they do in their teaching. Must they turn introvert in order to advance?

WHILDIN, OLIVE A., "Modern Education of the Deaf," *The Volta Review,* LXIV (November, 1942), 618-620.

Much progress has been made during the past ten years in education for the deaf. Teachers should give more attention to the improvement of technical skills in language teaching.

NEWS AND NOTES

RUTH P. KENTZLER, *Editor*

(Please send items of interest for this department directly to MISS KENTZLER, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, MADISON, WISCONSIN.)

The Office of War Information has prepared a file of Background Material for radio writers on war information themes. It now makes this file available to teachers of speech and to noncommercial theatre groups all over the country.

Some of the subjects covered in the file include:

The United Nations
Rationing
Careless Talk
Rumors
The Enemy
Our Merchant Fleet
The Cost of Living
Transportation
Women in the War
Salvage
Conservation
Share the Meat
Mileage Rationing

Any persons or organizations interested in developing one or more of such themes into sketches or plays may receive the titles they need by addressing Mr. Emery W. Balduf, Head of School and College Services, Office of War Information, Washington, D.C.

* * *

The first issue of a new publication, the *Theatre Annual,* went to press in February. It is a professional publication of information and research in the arts and history of the theatre, and is intended to be of special interest to theatre workers, theatre librarians, and teachers of the theatre arts and literature.

The present editors are: George Freedley, curator of the theatre collection of the New York Public Library and critic of the *Morning Telegraph;* Barrett H. Clark, executive director of the dramatist's play service; Hubert Heffner, administrative head of the department of speech and dramatic art in Stanford University; and Richard Ceough, of the College of the City of New York. Professor Ceough is also serving as Managing Editor.

Prepublication price to members of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION was $1.00, and the publication price is $1.50. Persons desiring to subscribe or to submit manuscripts for publication should address the *Theatre Annual,* 42 West 35th Street, New York City.

* * *

Indiana State Teachers College is attempting an interesting venture in coordinating the speech classroom with the practice of student teachers. One instructor in speech is assigned to part time work with all students doing practice teaching in the laboratory training school. He visits all classrooms, observes the students in their teaching, administers speech tests, and works for improvement through conferences with both the critic teacher and the students. More serious deficiencies are referred to the speech clinic. A final check is made before each student finishes the practice period, and results are noted. The final implications of this experiment will probably result in two things: a re-evaluation of the fundamentals speech course and an increased effectiveness of teaching.

* * *

Howard C. Hansen took a leave of absence in December from Kent State University School of Speech to assist in the instruction of speech in the Army Air Forces Radio Instructor School located at St. Louis University. This is a school for training civil service instructors, who after twelve weeks, go to various air fields to train soldiers in radio operation and mechanics. The course of study requires that each student must devote one hour a day, six days a week to training in effective public speaking as it may apply to their work.

* * *

Major Ernest H. Reed, on leave from Indiana State Teachers College, is now the

Assistant S-3 of the Adjutant General's School in Fort Washington, Maryland, in general charge of academic training for the approximately 14,000 soldiers under this command. He does some traveling and inspection of the various schools.

* * *

The department of speech in Massachusetts State College, under the direction of Clyde W. Dow, is presenting a series of film forums in cooperation with other units of the college. The forums are to include such films as *Target for Tonight* (on an RAF raid), *Words for Battle* (on propaganda), *Wartime Factory,* and material on civilian defense.

The length of meetings are from an hour to an hour and a half, with the first half being devoted to the sound film and the last half to the discussion of ideas stimulated by the film. One of the by-products of the forums is that it furnishes a laboratory for students in the Discussion course.

* * *

Katherine Moran, an actress in the Chapel Hill group in North Carolina, has given up graduate study in Louisiana State University for the time to serve as senior hostess in the Service Club at the Boca Ratan Field in Florida. One of her duties is the planning and development of programs.

* * *

News of WHA, the University of Wisconsin Radio Station, includes the following items:

Harold B. McCarty, station director, is on leave to work on short wave psychological warfare in the Office of War Information, New York City. His wife, Ruth Dieckhoff McCarty, has left her position as dramatics director in West High School of Madison to join Mr. McCarty in New York.

Harold Engel, business manager, is now a first lieutenant in the Army and is stationed near Seattle. His wife, Helen Engel, has left her position as an auditorium director in the Madison schools to join him.

William Harley has been appointed acting director.

Walter Krulevitch has succeeded Mr. Harley as program supervisor.

Margot Baer is now a full time member of the staff.

Romance Koopman is script editor.

Roy Vogelman, M.A. 1942, has joined the staff as announcer and newscaster.

Service men and women, furnished by the Madison USO, led a discussion on "Peace Aims After the War" before the Women's University and College Discussion Group that met February 11 on the Wisconsin campus. Representatives were present from Northwestern University, University of Illinois, Mt. Mary College, and Rockford College.

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Ethel Rockwell, formerly director of the University of Wisconsin drama extension courses, is taking training in St. Louis preparatory to teaching radio courses at Truax Field.

* * *

Ruth P. Kentzler, assistant director of the USO in Madison, Wisconsin, is organizing classes in speech for Officer Candidate School men from Truax Field. The classes are to be conducted at the USO.

* * *

Ethel Kaump has left her position in St. Cloud, Minnesota, to enter the SPARS as an officer.

* * *

The 1500 Army aviation cadets now in the University of Missouri for five months training are required to have instruction in "facility and precision in the use of oral and written English." Bower Aly, chairman of the department of speech and dramatic art, has increased his teaching staff in order to take care of the heavy load of teaching thus imposed.

* * *

A series of bulletins on the speech arts in elementary education is being issued in East Orange, New Jersey, as part of an extensive study in the field of language arts.

For the past three years the language arts committee, comprised of some fifty public school teachers under the chairmanship of W. George Hayward, has been working on a number of reports designed to increase the effectiveness of instruction in written and spoken language activities in the elementary schools of East Orange.

The speech division of this committee, headed by Laurence B. Goodrich, chairman of the department of speech, East Orange High School, has recently released bulletins entitled *Audience Reading, Choral Speaking, Storytelling, Conversation,* and *Dramatization*. The speech series will be complete when bulletins called *Discussion, Speech Making, Speech Correction,* and *The Program of Speech in Elementary Education* are made available.

The Executive Committee of the Eastern Public Speaking Conference has decided that in view of the war emergency the annual meeting will be postponed for the duration. It is felt that the holding of the National Convention in New York next December will obviate the need for the Eastern Conference meeting this spring.

* * *

James F. Curtis, director of the Speech Clinic in Purdue, during the leave of absence of Lt. M. D. Steer, left Purdue on March 1 to engage in acoustical research for the United States Army under the National Research Council in Washington, D.C. His work at Purdue has been divided between Jeanette Anderson, who acts as director of the speech clinic, and Burrell Hansen, who acts as director of the voice science laboratory.

* * *

Paul Emerson Lull, director of forensics at Purdue, is now a first lieutenant in the Air Corps, in training at Miami Beach, Florida, on leave from Purdue. Leland S. Winch is acting as director of forensics during Professor Lull's absence.

* * *

Alan H. Monroe, head of the division of speech in Purdue University, is now on leave and has been commissioned as a first lieutenant in the Air Corps. He left for duty during the third week in March. During his absence from Purdue the work in speech will be administered jointly by H. Kenn Carmichael and L. S. Winch as co-chairmen.

* * *

Ensign James S. Maddox, on leave from Purdue University, died on a life raft after drifting for 76 days in the southern Atlantic following the torpedoing of his ship. He was buried at sea.

I. M. COCHRAN

For the third time within six months the JOURNAL must announce the death of a distinguished member of the profession.

I. M. Cochran, one of the 17 charter members of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, and for 31 years a teacher of speech in Carleton College, died on January 4. He had retired last June, and at the time of his death was on his way to California.

He went to Carleton in 1911, with degrees from the University of Michigan (under Thomas Clarkson Trueblood), and previous teaching experience in Tri-State College, University of Michigan, and Northwestern University. When the department of public speaking was organized at Carleton College in 1914, he was made its head. His was one of the first departments in America to change its official name to the "department of speech." This was done in 1915. Said the Carleton alumni magazine at his retirement: "He has profoundly influenced the lives of scores of young men who have gone into positions of responsibility and distinction all over the country. . . . [He] has had a phenomenal record in competition with other schools in debate and oratory. He has always expected hard and faithful work from his men, and there is in his personality an enthusiasm and comradeship which has made them not only willing but eager to put forth their best efforts."

He had no aspirations to write books or to publish monographs. His energy was given wholly to writing a positive influence in the lives of his students. And there his influence was writ large.

AMONG THE CONTRIBUTORS

LIONEL CROCKER, *Editor*

Wendell Johnson: *The Status of Speech Defectives in Military Service* (A.B., M.A., Ph.D., Iowa) is associate professor of psychology and speech pathology in the State University of Iowa. Among his publications are *Because I Stutter* (Appleton-Century, 1930), and *Language and Speech Hygiene* (Institute of General Semantics, Chicago, 1939). He is editor of the *Journal of Speech Disorders.*

Raymond Carhart: *War Responsibilities of the Speech Correctionist* (Ph.D., Northwestern) is assistant professor of speech reeducation in Northwestern University, and director of its newly established program in education of the deaf and hard of hearing. He is chairman of the committee on rehabilitation of the American Speech Correction Association.

Louis A. Mallory: *Speech Training of Army and Naval Officers* (A.B., M.A., Ph.D., Wisconsin) is assistant professor of speech and director of radio in Brooklyn College. He is a veteran of the last war. He has been program director and announcer of WHA, an associate editor of *Players Magazine*, on the Advisory Council of AETA, and director of the theatre at the University of Wyoming for eleven years.

McDonald W. Held: *Public Speaking in the Army Training Program* (A.B., Baylor; M.A., Northwestern) before becoming a member of the department of speech in Miami University taught in the department of speech at Baylor University, and was chairman of the department in Tarkio College.

Lt. Colbert C. Held: *Public Speaking in the Army Training Program* (A.B., Baylor; M.A., Northwestern) is assigned to the Motion Picture Branch of the Army Air Forces Matériel Center at Wright Field. He was assistant professor of English in Mississippi College, and later was head of the department of speech in Tarkio College, from which he is now on leave.

Franklin H. Knower: *Speech Curricula and Activities in Wartime* (A.B., Northwestern; M.A., Syracuse; Ph.D., Minnesota) is associate professor of speech, State University of Iowa.

William M. Sattler: *Socratic Dialectic and Modern Group Discussion* (A.B., Yankton; M.A., Michigan; Ph.D., Northwestern) is assistant professor of speech in the University of Oklahoma. Before going to Oklahoma he taught in the University of Illinois and the University of New Hampshire.

Earl W. Wiley: *The Rhetoric of the American Democracy* is professor of speech in Ohio State University.

Douglas Ehninger: *A Logic of Discussion Method* (B.S., M.A., Northwestern) is an instructor of speech in Western Reserve University. He has taught in Northwestern and Purdue Universities. At the present time he is serving as director and moderator of the Western Reserve University Radio Round Table which is heard each Sunday over Station WTAM in Cleveland.

J. Edward Lantz: *A Survey of Modern Preaching* (A.B., DePauw; M.A., Michigan; B.D., Yale) is a graduate student in the University of Chicago and pastor of the Methodist Church at Rossville, Indiana. For the past three years he has been associate minister of the First Methodist Church, Ann Arbor, and for two years teaching fellow in speech in the University of Michigan.

Alexander Wyckoff: *Amateur Show Tonight—Place, Broadway* is the Director of the Wyckoff School of Stage and Art Crafts, and is in charge of advanced design of the Philadelphia Museum School of Industrial Art. From 1932 until 1941 he was instructor of stagecraft at the summer sessions in the department of speech of the University of Michigan. He has been a member of the National Theatre Conference since its organization.

Kenneth L. Graham: *Meyerhold and Constructivism in the Russian Theatre* (A.B., Iowa; M.A., Northwestern) is an Ensign in the

United States Naval Reserve aboard the *U.S.S. PC 1192*. Before enlistment he was a member of the University of Minnesota Theatre Staff. He has been a director at Cain Park Theatre in Cleveland Heights, Ohio, for the past two summers.

Jeanette Anderson: *A Critique of General Semantics* . . . (A.B., Rockford; M.A., Ph.D., Wisconsin) is the new director of the speech clinic in Purdue University. She worked in the field of speech pathology but has published articles in the field of general speech.

Martin F. Palmer: *The New Membership Requirements of the American Speech Correction Association* (A.B., Olivet; M.A., Sc.D., Michigan) is professor of logopedics and director of the Institute of Logopedics in the Municipal University of Wichita. He is the author of numerous scientific publications.

K. C. Beighley: *What The Experts Say About Nasality* (A.B., Muskingum; M.A., Ohio State) is a teacher in the Senior High School at South Pasadena, California. He made this study of nasality as a part of his duties in the speech clinic of the Ohio State University while working toward the doctor of philosophy degree.

Charles H. Voelker: *The Extent of Correction by Speech Therapy* is an assistant professor of speech in Oklahoma A. & M. College, where, in addition to teaching experimental phonetics and clinical therapy, he directs the rehabilitation clinic for the disabled and handicapped. This clinic, in cooperation with the National Government, is organized to resocialize disabled veterans at a rate of 1200 per year.

Arthur G. Topf: *An Improved Pseudo-Palate for Palatography* (B.S., D.D.S., Northwestern) practiced general dentistry in Chicago until 1940, and then became associated with the Muncie Clinic, Muncie, Indiana. In August 1942 he enlisted with the Dental Corps of the U. S. Army.

Gordon E. Peterson: *An Improved Pseudo-Palate for Palatography* (A.B., DePauw; M.A., Ph.D., Louisiana) is director of the speech and hearing clinic in Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana. He is President of the Indiana Speech Correction Association.

Charles Morris: *The Teaching of Oral and Written Communication* . . . (A.B., Chicago) in addition to his work in the University of Chicago studied at Trinity and Harvard. He is chairman of the Audio-Visual Aids Committee of the New England Association of English Teachers. He is also associate editor of *The Independent School Bulletin,* published by the Secondary Education Board.

Wilbur E. Moore: *Factors Related to Achievement and Improvement in Public Speaking* (M.A., Ph.D., Iowa) is professor of speech in Central Michigan College of Education. He has taught in Colorado State College, Kent State University, and in summer sessions of the University of Iowa and Denver. He has written for *The Journal of Speech Disorders, The Forensic,* and has recently sold a series of articles to *Your Life.*

Vera Alice Paul: *The Relation of Oral Reading to Remedial Reading in Elementary and Secondary Schools* (A.B., Coe, Northwestern; M.A., Iowa) is chairman of the division of speech of Louisiana Polytechnic Institute. She has had published a monograph, *Present Trend of Thought in Oral Reading.*

Carney C. Smith: *Practical Procedures in Coaching High-School Debate* (A.B., Western Michigan; M.A., Michigan) is assistant to the director of American Junior Red Cross, Eastern Area. He was formerly professor of speech, Alma College, Michigan. He served as editor of the revised *Course of Study in Speech,* published in 1941 by the Michigan Association of Teachers of Speech.

Frank M. Rarig: *Ralph Dennis* (A.B., M.A., Northwestern) is chairman of the department of speech in the University of Minnesota. He did graduate study at Harvard in 1917-18. Taught summer sessions in Wisconsin, 1924 and 1928; Michigan, 1931; Northwestern, 1934 and 1937. Studied in England, 1936-37. Special lecturer, universities of Oklahoma and Louisiana. President of NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, 1929.